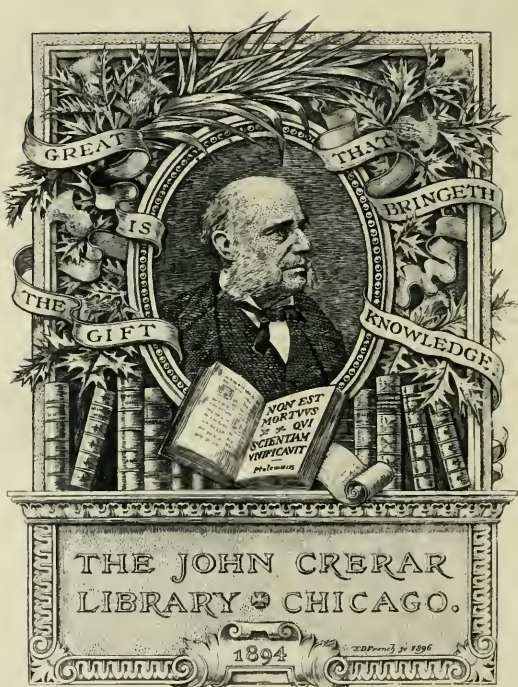


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THE CITY PLAN

A QUARTERLY

MARCH · 1915

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THE CITY PLAN

Published Quarterly as the Official Organ of the National Conference on City Planning

VOLUME I

MARCH · 1915

NUMBER 1

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The City Plan will be sent to subscribers for 25 cents the copy, \$1.00 a year.
Members of the National Conference will receive it without charge.

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THE CITY PLAN

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FOREWORD

PLAN commissions officially connected with the municipal administration did not exist in the United States, and legislation labelled "City Planning" was not written before 1907. Today there are at least one hundred such commissions, and planning legislation has been passed or is now being considered by the legislatures of at least fifteen states. Before 1900 there were occasional articles on city planning which increased in volume during the last few years of the nineteenth century, but by far the greater part of the very considerable body of American writing on the subject has been brought out since 1905.

This progress in legislation and administration has been almost too rapid; it has gone ahead of the general knowledge of the subject; plan commissions have been legislated so hurriedly into existence that they have with difficulty discovered their proper functions. Errors on the part of the new agency and misunderstandings on the part of the older municipal agencies have been inevitable; but the fact remains that planning authorities are producing ideas, methods and physical results. The National Conference on City Planning aims to present some of these accomplishments in *The City Plan*, where, by discussion of ideas and comparison of experiences, whatever of error may be corrected and whatever of value may be preserved.

And if at the same time the true meaning of city planning is made a part of common knowledge, if the citizen is taught to discriminate between temporary schemes for the city beautiful and orderly city building, the labors of the editors and contributors will be well paid.

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THE LANDSCAPE ARCHITECT AS THE ALLY OF THE SANITARIAN

CHARLES W. ELIOT

President-Emeritus of Harvard University

THE business of the landscape architect is likely to be much modified during the next twenty years. Plans for large private estates and public parks will continue to be needed ; but the main work of landscape architects is likely to be the making of wise plans for new cities, towns, and villages, the improvement of existing municipalities, and the planning of "garden cities" near new factories or mines and in the vicinity of closely built and crowded cities. In short, it is to be the function of the landscape architect in the immediate future to contribute to the healthier and more agreeable housing of the whole people, but especially of those who work in-doors all the year round.

The concentration of a large proportion of the American people in cities and large towns has already imposed on landscape architects the devising of means of defense against the physical and moral damage which city life inflicts on the population. The main work of the landscape architect for the next twenty years will be the study of the means of giving more air and sunlight and more opportunities for out-door life to the people who dwell in cities and large towns. The landscape architect must learn how to provide city people with out-door playgrounds, nurseries, and parlors good for all but the winter months, and with safe, warmed, and ventilated buildings for active sports and games, music, and dramatics during the winter. Every large school building should have a room fit for music and the drama, and every school should have a large yard ; and these facilities should be utilized by the whole neighborhood out of school hours. All the open spaces in cities should be decorated with trees and shrubs, as much as their daily use for active sports will permit. A broad, decorated parkway, provided with walks, ample planting spaces, and plenty of benches ought to be readily accessible from every densely built quarter of a large city. Cities built on the sea or on a river should utilize the seashore or the riverbanks as spaces for public enjoyment,—by overhead structures, if necessary. The radial highways of a town or city need not be always straight ; and the circuit highways need not be built on uniform curves. Variety is much more pleasing than uniformity, —particularly if parkways, main highways, and streets can be made to follow contours. City streets which

merely give access to houses, and are not used for through traffic, may be narrow so far as the driveway is concerned, but should always have liberal planted spaces, and a uniform set-back of the houses. On parkways or highways for through travel, there should be two roads for vehicles with a sidewalk near the houses, and planting spaces and a mall between the two one-way, stop-on-the-right roads. No self-respecting city ought hereafter to compel thousands of its children to play in the gutters of narrow, sunless, and dirty streets. In all these matters the landscape architect is the indispensable ally of the sanitarian and the public health officer.

It may be hoped that an important part of the landscape architect's work in the near future will be the laying out of new "garden cities." The English garden cities are highly successful as properties and as means of promoting sound family life and public health. To be sure, there are two obstacles to the adoption of the English garden city in the United States. The first is the price of labor in the building trades and in the trades that supply building materials; the second is the not uncommon preference of the American workman for owning, rather than hiring, the house for his family,—a privilege which the English workman is not so apt to desire. It is not so easy to maintain through long years the quiet and respectability of a neighborhood of owned houses as it is of leased houses. This second difficulty may, perhaps, be avoided by restrictions on sale,—such, for instance, as provision that sale can be made only to the company or society that organized the garden city, carries on its common heating and lighting plant, and supervises its playgrounds and buildings for common use.

The problems which the wise laying out of a garden city presents to a landscape architect are very interesting, and to solve them well requires much skill and keen insight into the sanitary and social needs of working people. Each lay-out has to be adapted to the contour of the ground, the opportunities for drainage, the existing highways and means of transportation, and the aspect of the tract in regard to sun and wind. In most new lay-outs the landscape architect can avoid the dull rectangular plan, which provides no good sites for large buildings, and forces men, animals, and vehicles always to follow the two sides of a triangle instead of its hypotenuse, and can substitute some pleasing approximation to the advantageous radial and circumferential lay-out. The rectangular lay-out has been a blight on American architecture and landscape architecture ever since it was first introduced into American cities. Garden cities should supply many opportunities of escaping from it.

The improving of existing suburbs affords another useful field for landscape architecture. To make them pleasanter and healthier the semi-detached house,—that is, two similar houses under one roof with a fire-proof wall between them, and ample ground about them,—must be substituted in suburbs for the tenement house and the “three-decker” with no ground, or narrow strips of ground, about them. The suburbs of great cities need to be made pleasant with decorated parkways, planted streets, and pretty grounds about the houses, neatly kept and open to public view. The agreeable grouping of suburban houses in economical ways, with due reference to light, air, aspect, and cost of upkeep, is a subject that needs much greater attention from landscape architects than it has ever received. Families should live side by side, and not over each other; and every family should have a garden plot.

In contributing to the realization of any of these improvements in the housing and hygienic habits of the American family, landscape architects will help to solve some of the gravest problems which manufacturing, free communities are encountering. They will spread out cities, diminish the unwholesome congestion of population in cities and towns, make the lives of operatives, miners, mechanics, and clerks and of their wives and children healthier and happier, and so increase the efficiency of the entire community.

In doing this good work they will learn that the bad methods of taxation on both real and personal property which prevail in most of the States are responsible for much of the demoralizing and enfeebling congestion of population from which the cities suffer, and that unreasonably high wages in certain trades protected by natural or artificial conditions work great injury to the people who follow trades that have no such protection, are subject to international competition, and cannot support such wages. Having learnt themselves what the evils are which are rendering urban life in America dangerous to the national well-being, landscape architects can perhaps show their fellow citizens what the remedies are.

A STATE PLAN FOR MASSACHUSETTS

ARTHUR COLEMAN COMEY

Member Massachusetts Homestead Commission

CITY and town planning have in the last decade become more and more widely recognized to be essential to municipal development; and we have lately heard something of rural planning, which extends planning to country life. All these separate city, town and rural plans, however, even when added to one another leave a gap in the development of the State, because they are not properly correlated so as to produce a cumulative effect. It is state planning that is needed.

In Massachusetts the beneficial results from such a plan would be particularly apparent, as its density of population is greater than that of any other state except Rhode Island and greater than that of any country in the world except Belgium, previous to the war, and Holland. Partly as a result of this density the interests of its cities and towns frequently overlap and even conflict. In Essex County, for example, with its many hundred acres of wild land and low-valued farms, there is no point more than nine miles from the center of the nearest city of twenty-five thousand or more. Boston's sphere of influence, over which her plan should spread, properly covers the entire metropolitan district, including some thirty-eight cities and towns, each one of which may be planning for its own special interests to the detriment of the district as a whole. Again, Lawrence is growing out into the towns of Methuen, Andover and North Andover, which hem it in on all sides, yet it has no power to insist on the provision of adequate thoroughfares or playground sites for its people. Going slightly farther afield we find Boston's water reserves practically destroying large portions of several towns in central Massachusetts.

But it is not so much in harmonizing conflicting interests as in securing mutual advantages that state planning will be of the greatest value. Already through the medium of a Metropolitan Park Commission, Boston and the thirty-eight neighboring municipalities have secured joint ownership of a splendid system of reservations of scenery, beaches, parks, and parkways. But opportunities for this type of co-operation would continue to come up almost indefinitely if a comprehensive plan were worked out and adhered to, and frequently the lack of a plan is the only reason why these opportunities are not seized. Consider, for example, the Merrimac River. The State Highway Commission has recently completed a magnificent highway of ample width along its bank from Lawrence to

Lowell, but through lack of a general plan and adequate powers it has failed to acquire the narrow strip of beautiful shore between the road and the river, with the result that at the very borders of Lawrence, less than a mile and a half from the city hall, a magnificent opportunity for a much needed bluff park, with a glorious view up and down the river mid heavy pine woods, is in danger of being lost through the very increase in land values due to the new highway itself. Farther west the interests of Lawrence in a river shore reservation merge with those of Lowell; to the east Lawrence and Haverhill would have common benefits; southward Lawrence and Andover are alike interested in the preservation of the natural beauty of the Shawsheen River. Similar instances of common interest may be found repeatedly throughout the state.

In the matter of highways more has been done. Under the direction of the State Highway Commission through routes have been constructed between the principal cities. All that is needed in this case is to correlate the system with an adequate plan. This plan would designate a complete system of highways connecting all the principal cities in the state, so that each improvement when made might fit in and become an organic part of the state system. Furthermore, such a plan would stimulate cities to open up and construct the portions of these routes situated within their limits. Lowell would be as much interested in a road to Worcester as Worcester would be in a road to Lowell. The state plan would conserve the interests of both. No through road between these cities of one hundred thousand and one hundred fifty thousand respectively now appears on the state highway plans.

Already several states—notably Wisconsin and New York—have state park systems. Massachusetts has made a good beginning in its reservations of hill tops and other points of scenic interest; but infinitely more is needed. Even in the metropolitan district there is need of a vision corresponding to that grand vision of Charles Eliot which in 1893 culminated in the establishment of the present metropolitan park system. Nearly twenty-five years have passed; it is time for another equally great vision, a dream that shall by its own force come to pass as Charles Eliot's dream did.

Six miles north of Boston runs a series of wild, rocky ridges from Middlesex Fells almost to Revere Beach. Two miles beyond a series of stream valleys affords another opportunity for a connecting belt of park lands from the Fells to the Lynn woods—a link of the metropolitan system which has already been planned in a small way. A strip along the Saugus River would afford another connection with the beaches.

To the northwest just back of Belmont is a beautiful and as yet untramed country; due west around Doublet Hill there are still heavy woodlands; southwest are the meadows and banks of the upper Charles River, at present only partly controlled, and in need of connection with the existing reservations of Stony Brook and Blue Hills; to the southeast the shores of Weymouth and Hingham are as desirable for public ownership as any of those already obtained.

The state plan would suggest park reservations such as these throughout the state; but it would go much farther. Through the enlarging of many of the state highways by including strips of woodland on each side and through the scheduling of forest areas a continuous system of parkways could ultimately be provided. Ocean and lake shores, narrow stream valleys and rocky ridges would be included, though they might well be allowed to remain in private ownership for many years.

The state plan would, however, in the same way that the city plans of Philadelphia and certain other cities now do, establish building lines within which no damages to subsequent improvements would be allowed. In this way when the time came for taking over the particular strip of land for public use its cost would in no way be increased; for, though the land value might well have risen, the very taking of this land for park purposes would, if the plan were well conceived, create new values in its vicinity which could bear the entire cost without hardship. If on the other hand the state planning line was deemed an incumbrance the particular area to be bought would remain low in value and the surrounding property would become high in anticipation of its purchase.

The state plan would provide in advance sites for all state institutions so that they would not need to be dropped here and there haphazard as is now so apt to be the case. In the field of transportation facilities it would bring order out of chaos in the steam railroad routes; it would moreover, doubtless incorporate in its plan and thus make permanent the valuable recommendations of the recent temporary commission on transportation in the western hill-towns, and similar spasmodic plans; it would seek the best utilization of the rivers and harbors for commerce; and it would plan the development and control of streams for power and the prevention of floods and pollution.

Finally and probably of most far reaching importance the state plan would suggest in advance the highest economic use to which all private property might be put. It would establish, as some city plans now do, zones or districts for industries, commerce and residential development, and, furthermore, in the sphere of rural planning it would determine the

areas suited for market gardening, orcharding, animal husbandry, and other types of agriculture. By soil analyses it might even determine the precise crops which would yield the greatest returns. It would point out that certain other areas would be of greatest use to the community as forests. Much of Massachusetts is suited to this "crop" only, though hitherto shortview methods have excluded tree-planting from consideration. Moreover, good forests would produce a most needed contingent development of wood-working industries such as are already partly developed at Winchendon.

As a basis for the state plan certain surveys are essential. In Massachusetts much has already been done along various lines by several state departments and many private agencies, each, however, working independently and for its own special interests alone. The first requirement is an adequate topographic map. The U. S. Geological survey sheets, for which the surveys were made in 1885-1890, include some of the first sheets made by the department and are not as accurate as the more recent government surveys. The excellent state boundary survey, however, accurately defines town and city bounds, and thus will serve as a basis for filling in details. Already the Massachusetts Agricultural College has made numerous soil surveys; the State Forester has scheduled certain forest areas; other departments have material, often more than they realize, on file; and hundreds of private investigations have been made of drumlin areas, watersheds and other topographic features.

Much of this material has recently been collated in an extensive joint exhibit at the Panama-Pacific Exposition, prepared under the auspices of the State Forester and Department of Agriculture, by Mr. Warren H. Manning, landscape designer, who has long taken a deep interest in state surveys and has been gathering this material for several years. The exhibit, in addition to plans and large models showing existing conditions, also includes a "Preliminary Study for an Economic Plan." Thus a start has already been made on a State Plan for Massachusetts.

PRELIMINARY PROGRAM

SEVENTH NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CITY PLANNING

AT DETROIT, MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY

JUNE 7-9, 1915

Monday, June 7th

Registration, 9.30 a.m. to 12 n.

Luncheon at the Casino, Belle Isle.

Motor tour of city.

FIRST CONFERENCE SESSION: 8 p.m.

President's Address.

Six Years of City Planning in the United States: The Secretary of the Conference.

The Secretary's report will review the significant events in city planning in the United States since the First Conference at Washington in 1909. It will be illustrated by lantern slides.

Tuesday, June 8th

SECOND CONFERENCE SESSION: 10 a.m.

The Best Methods of Land Subdivision.

THIRD CONFERENCE SESSION: 2.30 p.m.

The Best Methods of Land Subdivision.

This subject will be presented in a report from a committee of the Conference supplemented by a paper or papers by prominent real estate developers.

It is the intention to gather the essential facts about the more important types of subdivision plans which have been tested in actual use in the United States and Canada, and which have proved their advantages and disadvantages to the developer, to the owners and occupants and to the general public. Twenty local committees in as many different cities have been, for the last two months, collecting data on the subject. Tentative reports already received from committees have been based on a study of typical blocks showing street lines, lot lines and buildings at different periods in the history of the block. Blueprints showing the block at the given periods will be accompanied by reports, and supplemented by photographs.

FOURTH CONFERENCE SESSION: 8 p.m.

City Planning and Civic Design.

This session will be entirely devoted to the architectural side of city planning.

It is being planned by Mr. George B. Ford, a member of the executive committee of the Conference and a member of the American Institute of Architects. The papers will be illustrated by lantern slides.

Wednesday, June 9th

FIFTH CONFERENCE SESSION: 10 a.m.

The Constitution and Powers of a City Planning Authority.

SIXTH CONFERENCE SESSION: 2.30 p.m.

The Constitution and Powers of a City Planning Authority.

The general problem is being studied by a committee of the Conference and the report will be written by Dr. Robert H. Whitten, Secretary of the City Planning Committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, New York City.

It will be supplemented by a paper on European Planning Administration, by Frank B. Williams, Esq., who has made a special investigation of the subject for the New York committee, and by papers and discussions by representatives of plan commissions in the United States and Canada.

It will consider such questions as :

1. The establishment of some single city planning office or authority in each city with at least the following powers and duties: *a.* The adoption and revision of a tentative plan for the physical development of the city; *b.* The correlation of particular improvements by whatever authority originated, with the requirements of the comprehensive plan.
2. Should the city planning authority in order to carry out its function of correlating the particular improvement with the requirements of the comprehensive plan be given: *a.* an absolute veto; *b.* a veto that may be overridden by veto of council or other authority; *c.* merely the opportunity to investigate and report; *d.* a combination of the above: *i.e.*, an absolute veto in certain cases and merely an opportunity to present a report in other cases?
3. Should the functions of an art jury or commission be combined with those of a city planning authority?
4. How should the city planning authority be constituted: *a.* the city engineer or other similar official; *b.* a committee of the board of estimate, council, governing commission or similar body; *c.* a special ex-officio commission consisting of department heads or engineers having to do with the planning of particular functions; *d.* a special commission composed of citizens who are not city officials and who serve without pay?
5. Should a state plan commission be created with duties to investigate and report and give aid and advice to the local planning authorities?

NOTE: The Conference committee will welcome opinions on any or all of the above questions. Please send them to Dr. Robert H. Whitten, Municipal Building, New York City.

BUSINESS SESSION: 4.30 p.m.

BANQUET: 7.30 p.m.

The toastmaster, speakers at the banquet and speakers at each session will be announced on the final program which will be issued May first.

PLANNING THE METROPOLIS

HON. GEORGE MCANENY

Vice-Mayor, New York City

THE New York City Government has given official recognition to city planning in the creation of a "Committee on the City Plan" as a standing committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment. This is the important fact of the past year with regard to city planning in New York.

Through the Committee's staff — co-operating with the Board's Chief Engineer, Nelson P. Lewis — the ground work has been laid for the comprehensive plan-making designed to make all public improvements contribute to one main purpose; that is, the development of the city in such a manner as to promote the general economic and social welfare of the people.

Activity in city planning in the past — at least in this country — has been, for the most part, limited to individuals or unofficial organizations. Whatever interest municipal government may have taken in it has been more or less spasmodic. Although there have been municipal city planning commissions here and there in America, it has remained for New York, among the larger cities, to put city planning in the permanent program of its central city government, recognizing that it should be a constant and not an occasional subject of study. This standing committee has appointed an Advisory Commission of citizens, the membership of which represents unusual capacity and experience; and the Committee and this Commission are working in conjunction. The result of their labors is sure to be of vast benefit to New York.

City planning is not, of course, merely a matter of expenditure but of conservation and economy. The value of a City Planning Committee is shown not only by the wise things it does, but also by the unwise things it prevents. New York, like all other cities, has suffered from the practice of treating each public improvement as a thing by itself, without relation to the growth of the community as a whole. By our new policy we hope to end this form of error.

That prudent city planning is eminently practical — that it has saved money while actually promoting healthy growth — has been proven in some of the European cities. With the enthusiasm that possesses many of our public servants, and with plenty of experience and ability at our command, there is no reason why we in America should not produce just as good results.

HOW TO GO ABOUT CITY PLANNING

WALTER D. MOODY

Managing Director, Chicago Plan Commission

ASSUMING it is universally recognized that city planning requires a scientific plan, financial resources and an organization for its promotion, two questions promptly engage our attention. First, how to proceed to get these things, and, second, having acquired them, how may results be obtained?

Many communities inspired with a desire for more attractive physical development are immediately in a quandary concerning the best manner to proceed. Theory cannot possibly provide so good a formula as that proven by successful experience. There are many theories—all sorts of viewpoints are advanced and various methods tried. In cases where practical experience is lacking the best course is to be guided by the experience of others. Too frequently a false start is made and work that otherwise would have resulted in desired accomplishment ends merely in fine reports, much agitation and ill-considered sketches. A well-grounded plan of operation, backed by wisdom and insistent endeavor, cannot fail.

Rarely in this country is city planning work initiated by the municipal government. Where this is the case the highest degree of success is not attained. The best results have been had where the city planning movement originated with a group of substantial public-spirited citizens, or under the auspices of commercial or civic organizations. The reason is that at the very outset adequate funds must be had for technical advice and for the conduct of preliminary work to the end that public sentiment may be stirred. Appropriations by city administrations for the first need rarely suffice. This is due to the fear of politicians that the censure of the community would be incurred by invading new and untried fields. Under the ordinary power of a city for making appropriations for corporate purposes the second need cannot be covered at all.

It is necessary, therefore, after the question of city planning has been raised, to secure an adequate fund either by contributions from citizens or by appropriation from a civic organization. The fund in hand, there should at once be sought the services of a city planning expert. No attempt at city planning should ever be made without such counsel.

An expert city plan once evolved, the next step is to create public sentiment, and when that it aroused, to secure recognition of the Plan by the municipal authorities. The obligation of the sponsors by no means

ends with the mere submission of the plan to the city authorities. Accompanying their appeal there should be a well thought out plan of organization to be provided for by city ordinance. Until the time when city planning is established as a city department, the promotion of plan work should rest with a properly constituted quasi-public body.

When such an organization has been authorized, and appointed by the Mayor, adequate appropriation should be made by the city for its maintenance.

City Planning bodies vary in name, jurisdiction and official recognition in various communities. There are self-constituted bodies, so to speak, and those created by appointment of the Mayor on the authority of the City Council. A plan body appointed under city authority is perhaps best named the Plan Commission. Its organization should embody all elements constituting the citizenship of a community; the Mayor, his cabinet heads and one alderman from each section of the city should be ex-officio members. The whole commission, under the executive leadership of a Chairman, a Vice Chairman, and a Secretary, should in the remainder be composed of leading business men, representatives of all professions, union labor leaders, newspaper publishers and political leaders of all factions. The church of all faiths should be represented, and especially where there is a mixed citizenship, all nationalities should have representation. Such a commission should be absolutely non-partisan and non-political. But political faiths should have recognition in ratio to the political life of the community, and especially should the Chairman represent the leading political faction and the Vice Chairman the faction next in importance. This method of organization naturally would vary according to the size and citizenship of the city. The work of the Plan Commission should clear through an Executive Committee typical in its selection of the personnel of the larger body. An official headquarters should be established under the supervision of a director of works to carry out the projects initiated by the commission.

The power of the Plan Commission should be advisory and not executory, and it should act at all times as the intermediary between the city authorities and the people.

The Plan Commission should lend its first endeavor to the study of the plan committed to it by the city. That reasonably accomplished, it should next recommend a specific phase of the Plan for adoption and execution by the city.

The method advocated in this discussion is the procedure adopted in the creation of the Plan of Chicago by the Commercial Club of Chicago,

under the direction of Daniel Hudson Burnham, and in the organization of the Chicago Plan Commission.

Recognizing the fact that under American municipal rule the ballot box always precedes the city planner, the Chicago Plan Commission, at its inception, immediately undertook to comply with an important phase of its province stipulated in the message of the Mayor, on its appointment, viz.:

“whose duty it shall be to take up this question (the Plan of Chicago) to the end that the whole city and all elements in it may be fully informed as to what is contemplated in this plan for the future.”

Actuated by this admonition the Commission set out on an elaborate and comprehensive educational propaganda. First there was prepared an eighty-page illustrated booklet setting forth the technical proposals in the plan. This was shot through with a strong and exhortive appeal to the citizens to get behind the Commission in the promotion of the Plan. 165,000 copies of this booklet were published and distributed gratis to property owners and tenants paying a rental of \$25.00 per month and upwards.

Next there was prepared a textbook on citizenship and city planning for use in the Chicago schools. This study was adopted by the Board of Education, since which 45,000 copies have been issued.

Tens of scores of stories of the plan and the purposes of the Commission were written and furnished to newspapers and periodicals.

There was organized an effective stereopticon lecture course. The countries of the world were scoured for illustrations and technical data, for use in embellishing the arguments of the lecturer. Thus the Plan of Chicago has been directly presented in more than 300 lectures. 100,000 citizens have been reached directly in this way. Invitations for the lectures have been received from clubs, societies, business organizations, schools, universities, churches, labor organizations, in fact from every organized source and from all parts of the city.

A new and impressive means of publicity of far-reaching importance is soon to be employed by the Plan Commission. Civic Chicago is about to invade the world of “movies.” The Commission has arranged with the Educational Films Association to have the entire Chicago Plan put up in film form. This is to be a two-reel feature, occupying forty minutes in exhibition. It will show contrasting scenes of Chicago with those proposed in the Plan of Chicago and other interesting and illuminating features that go to make up an instructive pictorial exhortation.

To begin with, this reel will be exhibited in thirty first-class Chicago vaudeville houses and one hundred moving picture theatres. It will later be shown in the leading theatres of both character throughout the United States.

To further the Commission's educational propaganda, consideration is also being given to the making of talking machine "lecturette" records.

Interwoven with all this educational effort there has been the insistent work of the Commission with the city administration to have adopted by ordinance and other necessary procedure some parts of the general plan.

The first of these to be undertaken was the widening of Twelfth Street, the most important east and west artery in the ground work of the street system of the general plan. This improvement will be two miles in length and involves the taking of property and buildings for a widening of forty-two feet, the construction of a great new bridge and railroad viaduct. The total cost of the improvement is \$4,500,000. An ordinance has been passed by the City Council and bonds to the extent of \$1,750,000, the city's share of the cost, have been voted by the people. All preliminary steps have been complied with and the Twelfth Street case is now in court.

The next work of the Commission on the central street system was concerned with the improvement of Michigan Avenue, the city's leading north and south thoroughfare. This is to be one mile long and requires the taking of approximately seventy-five feet of property and buildings for the whole distance. It involves a two-level street structure and bridge, the total cost of which is \$8,000,000. An ordinance has been passed by the City Council, bonds to the extent of \$3,800,000, the city's share of the cost, have been voted by the people, and the case is nearly ready for court proceedings.

The Michigan Avenue case disposed of, the Commission next took up the proposed \$65,000,000 Union terminal project. Its work on that case secured for the city at the expense of the railroads sixteen important bridge, viaduct and street improvements. The latter includes the widening of Canal Street from eighty to one hundred feet, for more than a mile, in the heart of the city. This thoroughfare is destined to be one of Chicago's leading north and south arteries, and its improvement forms an absolutely new north and south connection across the Chicago River.

The improvement of Canal Street, in connection with Twelfth Street and Michigan Avenue, practically completes the foundation of the central street system in the plan.

The Commission then gave its attention to plans for the reclamation of five miles of lake shore to the southward of the city's center. These involve the establishment of 1,550 acres built out in the lake to form a series of parks, lagoons, playgrounds, driveways and to provide for future harbor needs. Tentative ordinances for this great project are now being drafted.

Forest preserves—great playgrounds outside of the city limits—and the construction of good roads in adjacent territory, having been recommended by the Commission, were approved by the people in referendum at last November's election. The forest preserve act was given a majority vote of 100,000, and the \$2,000,000 bond issue for good roads carried also by a big majority.

Chicago Plan Commission activities under present consideration cover recommendations to the United States government for a new post office site and building; the construction of additional bridges over the Chicago River; and other improvements concerning streets and city parks.

The headquarters of the Chicago Plan Commission has been established four years. During that period \$130,000 has been expended for promotional and technical work. Of this amount, \$90,000 was subscribed by the Commercial Club, the balance was had from yearly appropriations by the city. Prior to the appointment of the Commission, the Commercial Club had expended nearly \$100,000 for the creation of the Plan and the publication of its elaborate report for presentation to the city.

These finances have enabled the Commission to maintain the technical staff employed on the Plan when it was originally worked out; the Commission acting as advisor to the city in Plan matters, has furnished city departments, notably the Bridge Department, the Board of Public Works and the Board of Local Improvements with technical advice and has actually supplied detail drawings for certain plan projects adopted by the city on the recommendation of the Commission.

There is an understanding between the city authorities and the Commission that no major public works not included in the Plan of Chicago shall be initiated by the city without having first referred the same to the Plan Commission. Under this established policy, scarcely a month passes that some Council committee or city department does not invoke the advice and assistance of the Commission.

The experience of the Chicago Plan Commission may contain something of value to other communities insofar, at least, as it justifies the method of procedure described for the inception, adoption and organization of city planning effort.

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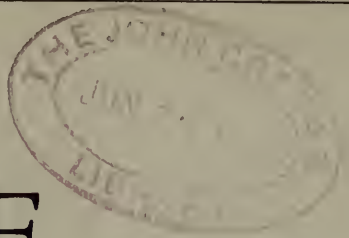
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THE CITY PLAN

A QUARTERLY

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JOHN NOLEN

Fellow American Society Landscape Architects

The City Plan will be sent to subscribers for 25 cents the copy, \$1.00 a year.
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EDITORIAL

WHEN "The City Plan" reaches its readers the Seventh Conference will be in session at Detroit, and representatives of at least fifty of the plan commissions of the United States will be discussing how planning principles can best be made an effective part of city administration. It is interesting to look back to the First Conference on City Planning at Washington, in 1909, and read what was then said about city plan commissions. Mr. Frederick L. Ford, a member of the Hartford, Connecticut Plan Commission, then the only plan commission in America, said "City planning work will be undertaken by official commissions with ample authority to employ experts and with sufficient appropriations to make investigations and reports"; and Mr. John Quincy Adams, of the New York Art Commission, said that the decision of the city plan commission on the question of the future development of the city should be final. These suggestions have been most remarkably borne out by the growth of plan commissions in the United States. At first, very few and with only powers of investigation and recommendation, they have increased both in number and in power. The provision that plan commissioners shall serve without pay appears to be uniform in all plan commission legislation, but apart from this, commissions differ greatly, particularly in makeup and in functions. Some plan commissioners are appointed, some are elected, some serve by virtue of other offices, a notable illustration of the last is the New York City Plan Committee, which is a standing committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment made up of the five borough presidents and the president of the Board of Aldermen. No more timely subject, therefore, could be considered than the "Constitution and Powers of a City Planning Authority," which, as the subject of a special committee's report, will be presented at the Conference and is contained in this issue of "The City Plan."

NEED FOR A CONSTRUCTIVE POLICY IN REGARD TO TOWN PLANNING

THOMAS ADAMS

Town Planning Advisor, Commission of Conservation, Canada

THE Seventh City Planning Conference is about to be held, and we have behind us a period of seven years' investigation and study of the problems connected with the subject from almost every point of view. Having regard to the extent to which cities and towns have employed expert advice in connection with the matter, and to the favor shown by press and public alike to the movement, there is much room for congratulation on the progress that has been made.

It is time, however, to take stock of the actual work that has been done, and to ascertain whether or not some constructive policy should be advocated as a guide for future action. In considering that question we have to recognize that both the United States and Canada are democratic countries, and a policy and methods which are practicable and useful in countries which are under bureaucratic control would neither be practicable nor useful on the American continent.

It is because of our regard for democratic principles that the precedent of Britain in the matter of town planning is most helpful to us as a guide, so far, at least, as the legal process by which it is to be attained is concerned. The Town Planning Act of Great Britain is designed to secure the planning of the cities and towns of that country with the co-operation of all interested parties and with the assent of the people as a whole. There has now been five years' experience of the working of that Act and experience has, of course, shown several directions in which it might be improved and extended. We have on this side of the channel the opportunity of taking advantage of the lessons to be derived from that experience.

In Canada there will be no constitutional difficulty in doing so. Our provinces can pass legislation similar to that of the British Parliament, and they have the power to enforce its application in the same way. Indeed, three provinces have already passed Town Planning Acts which are practically identical with the British Act, and in one of these provinces, New Brunswick, the first steps have already been taken to prepare a town planning scheme for an extensive area. In the United States, however, there appear to be peculiar difficulties in securing legislation of such a democratic kind as the British Town Planning Act, but surely

it should not be beyond the power and wisdom of that country to devise means to overcome its constitutional difficulties in this matter. I have ventured elsewhere to suggest that comparatively little of practical value can be done in the planning of a city unless there is: first, legislation to enable the area proposed to be planned to be controlled during the time the scheme is being prepared and: second, the financial details of the scheme are settled during its preparation and before its adoption. There are four necessary stages to be followed: namely,

1. Preliminary survey to determine area and obtain map of existing sociological and physical conditions.
2. Obtaining authority to control the area during preparation of the scheme so as to prevent anything being done to contravene it, or any speculation in values likely to be created by it.
3. Preparing scheme and getting approval by or on behalf of the Legislature.
4. Operating the scheme after it has been approved.

In an article in *The American City* I have argued that only the first of these stages can be effectively carried out without legislation. This raises the important point for town planning commissions, architects and engineers as to whether a good deal of the energy that is being applied to the preparation of schemes would not be better directed for a time to securing powers which would make these schemes effective. The fundamental difference between most of the schemes that have been prepared for American cities and say the Ruislip scheme in England, can only be realized when it is remembered that the latter has been prepared in practical co-operation with every owner of real estate in an area of 5,900 acres and that every financial detail of a scheme was anticipated and provided for before it was passed into law. Yet it dealt with every contingency that could be foreseen in regard to the development of the area to which it applied so as to secure health, convenience and amenity, and it has become an act of parliament and is binding upon every party. Is there any other method by means of which we can give permanent effect to a town planning scheme? Is there any alternative in a country where the rights of property and the rights of individuals have to be regarded? We have to continue to respect these rights, even if we intend by means of planning for the future to insist that those who possess them shall also carry out their responsibilities.

Having regard to the position as outlined above, I venture to suggest some principles which should be considered in connection with the promotion of future legislation.

In the States and Canada we have not only to consider the need for planning large cities but also the need for planning small towns and even growing villages. In the large cities we have wealth, and there should be available the best engineering and architectural skill, and with this combination the preparation of town planning schemes should be easy of accomplishment. In the smaller towns, even if legislation were passed, there is always the difficulty that there is neither sufficient funds nor local talent to prepare a proper scheme. Moreover, in a law which leaves it to the option of the municipality to prepare schemes there is always the weakness that it is adopted and used not in proportion to its need but in proportion to the willingness and ability of the local authority to use it. In Britain, for instance, the Act of 1909 is being extensively used by local authorities in whose area there is comparatively little development taking place, whereas in towns which are growing rapidly, nothing is being done.

This question raises another of interest. Under the British Act one municipality may include part of the area of another municipality in the area of its scheme. This is necessary to enable the local authority preparing the scheme to get some protection to its amenities and to secure convenient access just over the boundaries of its area wherever building development is proceeding or likely to proceed. But there is a drawback to this method as it is very difficult to give the one municipality, which encroaches on the area of another, power to expend money in such outside area or to raise taxes for purposes of recoupment of such expenditure. So far under the British Act the power to go outside has been useful, and comparatively little friction has taken place. I think, however, that a better way to meet a case of this kind, not necessarily as an alternative to it, but as an addition, would be to make certain town planning provisions compulsory on all authorities, thus reducing the cases, in which encroachments would have to be made into outside districts, to the minimum.

Briefly for the above and other reasons I regard it as desirable that a Town Planning Act should be partly compulsory and partly optional. *Prima facie* such a suggestion may appear to be inconsistent with my advocacy of democratic town planning, but is it? It is of the essence of a democratic constitution that it should give every scope to individual liberty, but to secure that result there must be regulation of the abuses of liberty. Compulsion is essential in such a constitution to prevent wrong doing, and the compulsory part of a Town Planning Act should lay down certain negative principles to secure that result. It might not

be justifiable to force a man to put ten houses on an acre if he only wanted to put four, but it might be quite justifiable to prevent him putting forty houses to the acre in a high-class residential neighborhood; the restriction would be necessary to prevent him from causing both financial injury to his neighbors and physical injury to his tenants. Some regard has also to be paid to the liberty of the citizens as a whole in contra-distinction to the liberty of individuals. These are correct democratic principles subject to the protection of legitimate private interests.

On what lines, therefore, can we secure effective town or city planning under such conditions as we have in the United States and Canada? I will endeavor to answer that by giving an outline of what a Town Planning Act should be.

Every city, town and municipality should be required to prepare a set of town planning by-laws within a specified time or as an alternative prepare a town planning scheme. Thus the preparation of by-laws would be compulsory but the preparation of the more expensive or elaborate scheme would be optional. Small towns and rural municipalities would probably content themselves with the preparation of by-laws, and the larger cities would probably prepare schemes. If in a large city or town a scheme were desirable and by-laws insufficient, it would be open to a body of ratepayers to petition for a scheme to be prepared.

The objects of a scheme should be to secure proper sanitary provisions, amenity and convenience in regard to all matters connected with the development and lay-out of land in a specified area. There would practically be no limit to what a scheme could include subject to its being approved, and it would be necessary for elaborate maps to be prepared to illustrate its provisions.

The objects of the town planning by-laws should be the same, but they should refer to specific matters which could be governed by regulations as set out in a schedule to the Act; no maps would be necessary, and there would not be the same scope for the exercise of discretion. They would be required to provide for: (1) Distances between buildings to be erected or reconstructed on all roads—say 60 feet to 100 feet according to circumstances; (2) Widths of prescribed main arterial roads and reservation of land for same; (3) Limitation of dwellings to each acre and of extent of each site to be occupied by buildings; (4) Light and air to windows and height of buildings; (5) Prescription of use of land for factories, dwellings, etc.; (6) Provision for narrow streets of short length in residential areas.

Model by-laws should be prepared by a central department as a guide to each local authority.

Every local authority should be required to appoint a local town planning board and every state or province should assign the duty of working the act to one of its departments, preferably the one dealing with highways or municipal affairs.

Sanction to prepare a town planning scheme should be obtained by the local board from the provincial or state department, which sanction would include the power to secure that while the scheme was being prepared no owner would be able to contravene or interfere with the proposed scheme. No subsequent sub-division should be permitted which was not first approved by the local board.

The provincial department should make regulations as to procedure, and after a period of time should prepare model provisions as a guide to show what a scheme might reasonably include.

Provisions should be made in the scheme for raising funds to carry it out, and local authorities should be permitted to borrow funds necessary to prepare schemes up to certain percentage of assessed value.

Compensation to be payable for injury by: (a) making the by-laws or scheme, and (b) executing the by-laws or scheme, and "betterment" to be claimed for increased value in respect of same matters.

Property not to be deemed to be injuriously affected by reason of provisions which prescribe space about buildings, limit number of buildings to be erected, prescribe height or character of buildings, which the central department regard as reasonable for health and amenity.

Local Board should have power to purchase or expropriate land, and to purchase land within 200 feet of the boundary lines of any street, public parks, etc., which it has laid out under the scheme.

No new town site should be sub-divided until plan is approved by the local board.

The above is a brief outline for an Act which would automatically secure the planning of each state or province — under simple by-law regulation in the rural areas and by more comprehensive schemes in the cities and towns. It would greatly simplify the procedure necessary under a purely optional measure and reduce friction between adjacent local authorities. It is suggested as a basis for discussion with a view to some constructive policy being adopted by all who are interested in town planning.

THE CONSTITUTION AND POWERS OF A CITY PLANNING AUTHORITY

ROBERT H. WHITTEN

Secretary City Plan Committee, New York City

CITY Planning involves: (1) the creation, adoption and revision of a tentative comprehensive plan for the physical development of the city and (2) the correlation of particular improvements by whatever authority originated, with the requirements of the comprehensive plan. The comprehensive tentative plan should include at least the following: streets; parks; playgrounds; transit; grouping of public buildings; railroads; waterways; terminals; markets, and the districting of the city for the purpose of regulating the height, area and use of buildings.

The creation of a comprehensive tentative plan involves first of all a careful study of future growth and requirements. In order to plan for the present and for the future, a picture is needed of what the city will or should look like in twenty-five, fifty or one hundred years when it has several times its present population. For this purpose studies are required of the probable growth and distribution of population and of the probable development of business and industry. The probable order of development is also important.

A comprehensive tentative plan having been worked out and tentatively adopted, the next step is to secure the correlation of particular improvements, by whatever authority originated, with the requirements of the comprehensive plan. As this comprehensive plan touches so many phases of municipal activity, an efficient administrative organization to secure the desired correlation is a most difficult problem.

Provision must also be made for the revision of the tentative comprehensive plan. No amount of planning can avoid the necessity for a considerable amount of reconstruction and change. When invention and discovery are changing the methods of work and of living throughout the world, it is idle to think that we can so judge the future that our present plans for the city's development will not require change and modification. City planning to be effectual must be sustained and continuous.

The creation, adoption, application, development and revision of the comprehensive tentative plan constitutes an imposing program. It takes considerable imagination and optimism to hope that it will ever be completely realized in any city. A few cities have adopted and carried out

comprehensive plans for particular functions, but using the term comprehensive plan in the broad sense above indicated, no city has worked out, adopted and provided effectively for the continuous application, development and revision of such plan. In a large city this constitutes a complex and difficult problem and the proper administrative organization to grapple effectively with it may not be such a simple matter as is sometimes assumed.

In American state and city government almost every expansion of governmental activity is initiated through the instrumentality of a new commission. There is a fear of intrusting the working out of new functions to existing officials. Existing officials are already loaded with work and it is thought that they will have neither the time, the inclination, nor perhaps the ability to develop the new idea. A new commission composed usually of unpaid members is used to plant and care for the new undertaking at least during its developmental period. Often the new function fails to take root as a permanent institution and the commission dies. If on the other hand the new function becomes a recognized governmental function it is sooner or later merged with the general governmental organization. The new function is transferred to the appropriate official or department and the commission disappears. This is inevitable. Otherwise municipal government would soon become an utterly disorganized tangle of boards and commissions.

The city plan movement will doubtless be no exception to the rule. Doubtless the commission method will be used largely in the earlier stages of the movement but if the city planning movement endures it will ultimately be made a part of the general governmental organization. The city plan is so vitally connected with every phase of municipal activity that it must be worked out in as close touch as is possible with the existing administrative and legislative authorities.

All this goes to show that it is difficult to dogmatize concerning the constitution and powers of a city planning authority. The organization essential for the initiation of the movement may be very different from the logical ultimate organization. The appropriate initial organization may vary in different cities with the size of the city, the popular support forthcoming, and the fitness of existing officials for the development of this new function. We are, of course, interested primarily in the result and not in the machinery used. The most effective agencies at hand should be availed of to start real city planning.

The typical city plan commission in America is made up of a number of citizens who are not city officials and who serve without pay. A com-

mission thus organized has certain advantages in the initiation of any new function. Appointed solely for city planning purposes the commission will devote itself unreservedly to that work. It will take a broad view of the scope of city planning. It will realize that it needs the assistance of city plan experts. It will not be deterred by details and difficulties that loom large in the vision of the practical city administrator. It will have something of the missionary spirit in propagating the gospel of city planning. All this presupposes that the commission is given adequate appropriations. A commission with the best intentions in the world will fail utterly unless its work and plans are founded on careful investigation, and careful investigation usually costs money.

A citizen commission of this kind has serious drawbacks when it comes to the official adoption and carrying out of a comprehensive plan. In the first place it is difficult to see how a commission thus constituted can be given anything more than advisory powers, *i. e.*, of investigation and report. The city plan affects so continuously, vitally and broadly the administration of the city government that it does not seem consistent with good administration to delegate such far reaching power to an appointive committee of citizens. Moreover, a number of the city's departments and officials are necessarily at work planning the city's physical development insofar as particular functions are concerned. Any comprehensive plan will lose much in practical efficiency and result in much duplication of effort unless worked out in close touch with these departments and officials.

All this is so important that in creating a city plan authority in any city instead of turning at once to the citizen's commission plan the ground should be very thoroughly gone over to see to what extent existing official agencies can be effectively used. Only in case this search for appropriate official material is unsuccessful should the alternative of a commission made up entirely of non-official members be availed of, and then only as a temporary expedient. It will usually be best to make up the commission partly of official and partly of non-official members.

The ultimate development in any large city may well be a city plan office that will have primary control of the development and administration but not of the adoption or confirmation of the city plan. This city plan office may be an executive department in one city and a bureau of the board of estimate or other governing commission in another city. The city plan office may have associated with it an advisory commission of citizens or of citizens and officials. The city plan office will develop the data required for comprehensive planning, will create

a plan showing the future physical development of the city and will submit to the regularly constituted governing authorities of the city such parts of the plan as seem desirable for adoption and confirmation as the tentative official plan of the city. All matters affecting the city plan will be referred to the city plan office for investigation and report before being acted upon by the general governing authority. The city plan office will make recommendations for the continuous development and revision of the tentative official plan.

Except in the smaller cities the function of an art jury or commission should not be combined with those of the city planning authority. The best art judgment will be secured by the selection of a group of art experts. City planning is a very different problem and requires different men and methods.

The organization of a city plan authority should be within the powers of every city but its creation should be permissive and not mandatory. Moreover, the composition and powers of the city plan authority should not be delimited by state statute except in the most general terms. The city should have the utmost freedom to enact, amend or abolish its city planning organization. This freedom of action and centralization of responsibility is even more essential to efficient city government than is city planning itself.

The power to confirm tentative plans submitted by the city planning authority should be vested in the regularly constituted governing authority of the city. The city plan authority should, however, be granted the opportunity to consider and report upon every matter affecting the integrity of the city plan, and action contrary to its recommendation should require a two-thirds vote of the governing authority.

The formal confirmation of a tentative comprehensive plan will come slowly. It will probably be inexpedient to ask for an official confirmation of any but the most essential parts of the comprehensive plan developed by the city plan office. The working out of a comprehensive system of main thoroughfares is naturally one of the first tasks of the city plan office. This is a matter, however, which as in the case of most city planning matters cannot be considered separately. Transit, rail and water terminals, markets, parks, building districts and other matters must be considered before even a tentative system of main thoroughfares can be laid out. This does not mean that the transit system, parks and terminals shall first be laid out in detail but merely that the system of thoroughfares shall be designed to provide adequately and economically for future transit, shall fit in with the most probable development of rail

and water terminals and provide proper approaches and connections for the park system. Having studied the thoroughfare system in connection with provision for transit and other factors it will probably be advisable to submit the thoroughfare plan for confirmation as a tentative or even final plan even though the transit, terminal and other parts of the comprehensive plan have not been sufficiently studied and elaborated to warrant their official confirmation.

The city plan office should realize at the start that its one big job is the development of the comprehensive plan; that it will not usually be in position to make a unique contribution to the solution of particular problems until it has this comprehensive picture of the future city. It should therefore guard against frittering its time away on numberless apparently urgent and immediate problems and thus lose the opportunity of ever becoming the real controlling force in shaping the future city. This does not mean that the city plan office may not with propriety advise in regard to questions where its preliminary studies show that failure to act would imperil the probable future plan.

The city plan office should have complete and direct control of the creation and administration of certain parts of the comprehensive plan and as to other parts of the plan, should act chiefly as the correlating factor. The matters over which it will have practically exclusive control will vary greatly in different cities. In many cities the city plan office may be given practically exclusive initial control over the general street layout. To better enforce such control no plat of a suburban development should be received for record until it shall have been approved as to its street system by the city plan office. Moreover, no public moneys should be expended for improvements of any kind in any street that does not conform with the city plan, or if no final map has been adopted for that section of the city no public improvements should be made in a street that has not been approved by the city plan office.

The question of compensation for buildings erected within the lines of a mapped street subsequent to the confirmation of a final map for such street presents serious difficulties. Frequently the lines of an approved street cut into an individual holding in such a way as to render it impossible of improvement without violating the proposed street lines. In exceptional cases a man would thus be deprived of the use of his property for an indefinite period if a rule were adopted denying him compensation for improvements made within the lines of the proposed street. Perhaps some plan could be worked out by which compensation for buildings would be denied unless previous notice of intention to build

had been given and the city allowed a period of three months within which to purchase the property in question.

Any adequate solution of the problem of securing adherence to a plan once adopted can scarcely be attained without the application of powers and procedure similar to those contained in the English Town Planning Act. This is particularly well adapted to the laying of large suburban tracts considerably in advance of the time when they will become ripe for improvement. Such areas, chiefly in large holdings, are doubtless greatly benefited by the application of a comprehensive plan of streets, open spaces and building control. The owners can well afford to pay the costs of a careful plan and to give up a certain degree of individual freedom in order to secure the undoubted advantages of uniform development. Of course the confirmation of such a plan would involve payment of compensation in excess of assessed benefits in the case of a few owners. We have no state department at all corresponding to the Local Government Board of Great Britain, but the supervision of such an authority is not deemed essential to the success of the undertaking. The administration of such authority might well be left to the city plan office, subject to the supervision of the established courts in certain matters.

The problem of inter-municipal planning, and of planning adjacent areas that will sometime become an integral part of an existing urban center, presents many difficulties. In some cases it may be possible to secure some union of adjacent local authorities to form a metropolitan district for the purposes of city planning. In other cases a state supervisory authority of some kind would probably be essential to the working out and enforcement of a plan for the entire urban area.

A state municipal department, with powers somewhat similar to those of the Local Government Board of Great Britain might be helpful to cities and towns in many ways. It could be granted a certain measure of control over local accounts and finances and could give expert aid and advice to the smaller cities on many subjects including city planning. There is, moreover, a broad field for state planning that might be taken up by a state municipal department, or, perhaps more appropriately by a state conservation department. This department would adopt a tentative comprehensive plan of state development; highways; railroads; waterways; forests; state parks; water supply and all inter-municipal problems of physical development.

THE LOCAL SURVEY AS A BASIS FOR CITY PLANNING STUDIES

JOHN NOLEN

Fellow American Society Landscape Architects

THE local survey, or the civic survey as it is usually termed when prepared for use in connection with the city plan, may be defined as the collection, compilation, interpretation and presentation of all the facts and information bearing upon the city's physical, social, economic, and financial condition.

The civic survey is one of the four main divisions or successive stages of city building, or city development. These main divisions may be set down as follows:

1. A survey of existing conditions and tendencies.
2. General plans and recommendations.
3. Detail and construction plans.
4. Maintenance and administration.

The degree to which the local survey should be carried depends largely upon the degree to which it is likely to be used. It is not an end in itself. As indicated above, it is made to serve certain purposes. At the present time there is great difference of opinion as to the extent and elaborateness of the local survey. For example, the Massachusetts Homestead Commission has drawn up a form for the local survey comprising items covering seventeen closely spaced typewritten pages. As a contrast, Mr. Thomas Adams has reduced the survey to three items as follows, which he terms the absolute minimum: (1) Topographical map, showing contours at intervals of 5 feet to 25 feet, existing streets, buildings and physical features, etc.; (2) Maps of sewers, water and gas mains; (3) Map showing traffic conditions and growth of population, and indicating generally the location of factories, parks, etc.

An outline of intermediate length suitable for small cities (say 100,000 population or less) which I have drawn up and used, is as follows:

I. PHYSICAL CONDITIONS.

A. *Topography.*

1. All available surveys of city.
2. Government surveys of district.
3. Surveys of adjacent towns.
4. Detail surveys by city or government.

B. *Resources and Climate.*

1. Range of temperature.
2. Rain fall.

3. Direction of winds.

4. Natural resources.

5. Plan showing open land available for various purposes.

C. *Areas and Zones.*

1. Present occupation of land.
2. Wooded areas.
3. City owned land.
4. Field map with notes on existing conditions and opportunities.

II. SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

A. *Housing.*

1. Typical lot and block plans.
2. Typical house plans.
3. Examples of good, bad and average housing.
4. Over-built-upon land.
5. Unbuilt-upon land.

B. *Occupation.*

1. Business distribution.
2. Factory distribution.

C. *Health.*

1. Vital statistics.
2. Density of population.

D. *Education.*

1. School distribution.
2. Density of population, 5-21.
3. School statistics.

E. *Recreation.*

1. Park and Playground map.
2. Park and Playground statistics.
3. Other open spaces.

F. *Welfare.*

1. Special schools.
2. Social centers.
3. Charities and correction.

G. *Safety.*

1. Fire hazard.
2. Grade crossings.
3. Other dangerous points.

III. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

A. *Streets.*

1. Accepted and proposed streets.
2. Actually laid out.
3. Street widths.
4. Street sections.
5. Street grades.

B. *Transportation.*

1. Railroad map—steam and electric.
2. Water transportation.

3. Measurement of cars, vehicles, vessels, etc.
4. Traffic census (selected points).

C. *Public Utilities.*

1. Water supply.
2. Disposal of waste.
3. Slaughter houses.
4. Other utilities—lighting, telephone, etc.

D. *Food Supply.*

1. Wholesale and retail districts or centers.
2. Distribution.

E. *Real Estate.*

1. Land values (assessed and actual).
2. Building values.
3. Building heights.
4. Building growth.
5. General tendency.

F. *Nuisances.*

1. Smoke.
2. Noise.
3. Dust.
4. Billboards.
5. Overhead wires.

G. *Administration.*

1. Diagram showing responsibility of various officials.

IV. FINANCIAL AND LEGAL CONDITIONS.

A. *Financial.*

1. Budget items.
2. Costs per capita.
3. Comparison with other cities.
4. Methods and rates of taxation.

B. *Legal.*

1. Building laws.
2. City planning laws.
3. Building lines.
4. Regulations and restrictions.
5. Unused powers.
6. City planning board.

For smaller places, mere towns and villages, the outline could be still further reduced, as suggested by the following ten heads:

1. Population past, present and probable future.
2. Maps showing streets and roads, distances and topography.
3. Representative land value in typical sections, past and present, showing tendencies.
4. Housing, indicating general character and tendency of each district.

5. Review of building codes and housing regulations.
6. Local taxation and revenue, showing records of past and tendencies.
7. Map giving the official width of all public roads in the town.
8. Methods of opening new roads and their improvement and of distributing the cost thereof. Is any distinction made between methods of main roads and thoroughfares and local roads?
9. Location of all existing public and quasi public properties — parks, playgrounds, public shore fronts, schools, churches, etc.
10. Probable future needs in respect to parks, playgrounds and other public open spaces, with notes upon opportunities for meeting them.

In the preparation of a civic survey there are four more or less distinct steps, as follows:

1. The drafting of a questionnaire.
2. The collection of data, maps, surveys, etc.
3. The interpretation of the data, maps, surveys, etc.
4. The presentation of the results, preferably in graphic form.

(1) The determination of the length and elaborateness of the survey rests largely with the questionnaire. A good illustration of a very thorough questionnaire is given in the "Report of Suggested Plan of Procedure for Jersey City," by George B. Ford and E. P. Goodrich. Another illustration less lengthy is that of "City Planning for Pittsburgh, Outline and Procedure," by Bion J. Arnold, John R. Freeman, and Frederick Law Olmsted.

(2) The collection of data is illustrated in the recently issued survey of Bridgeport, Conn. The traffic count in connection with the proposed Stratford Avenue Bridge, described in detail, shows what a valuable basis the local survey may furnish for a costly city planning project. Another and somewhat different illustration from the same report is the study of the stages of development of the Reilley Street Block. The survey here consists partly of definite facts with regard to the changes in assessed valuation, the number of people on a given lot, rents, income, etc., and partly of local opinion gathered from various sources as to the reasons for changes of occupancy, the succession of nationalities, the number of buildings constructed, etc.

(3) One of the most important parts of the local survey is the interpretation of the data. The motto here should be "The truth shall make us free." There is often a temptation to read our own conclusions into the facts, instead of interpreting the facts impartially. Some one has said "Figures won't lie," to which a wit has added, "but liars will figure." Interesting illustrations of the interpretation of local data and

surveys can be had from the range of land values maps prepared for Cambridge, Mass., and for Bridgeport. Some of the conclusions were as follows: That land values in general over the entire city have become high along relatively wide, through streets: that values are high in areas adjacent to public parks, where surroundings are assured; that protected and restricted residential sections usually have higher values than the districts surrounding them; that the overcrowding of residential sections sometimes results in higher and sometimes in lower land values.

(4) The presentation of the results of the local survey should be accurate, clear and interesting. In making them interesting, the chief factor is the use of graphic means. This method is being increasingly employed with unusually good results. Where graphic means are not employed, the statistical tables, no matter how complete or valuable, are apt to receive little attention.

One of the chief functions of city planning is to estimate and provide for the future of cities. In the attempt to do this with reasonable success, the local survey contributes the most valuable basis. It gives the increase of population, the growth of building operations, the distribution of building permits, the range of land values, the various successive stages of development of lots and blocks, the volume and increase of traffic at selected points, the comparison of methods and costs of one city with another, etc. These are the facts which a trained and experienced planner can use to discover the operating causes and the probable future conditions of a given city. With these as a basis, it is possible to outline a policy and a program of development and construction that ought to prove a valuable guide for a period of twenty or twenty-five years.

Among the best publications dealing with the local survey may be mentioned: "The City Survey Preparatory to Town Planning," by the Sociological Society, London, England; "The Civic Survey of Edinburgh" and "City Surveys for Town Planning and the Greater Cities," by Professor Patrick Geddes; "Knowing One's Own Community," by Carol Aronovici; "The Social Survey" and "A Bibliography," by the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation; "The Survey of Public and Social Recreation in Kansas City, Mo.," and a chapter in the "Handbook of City Planning" on "Fundamental Data as a Basis for City Planning," by Mr. George B. Ford, which is to be published later, in the series of Handbooks by the National Municipal League.

Recognition of

The
American
City

as the leading American authority on city planning is indicated in the recent publication by the National Conference on City Planning of a "Classified Selected List of References on City Planning." In this bibliography, prepared by Theodora Kimball, Librarian of the School of Landscape Architecture in Harvard University, there are 432 references to periodicals. Among these *The American City* is mentioned 137 times, or nearly one-third of the total number. In addition to its numerous articles on city planning, *The American City* covers in a broad way the whole field of municipal improvements and civic advance.

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In Collaboration with FREDERICK LAW OLMSTED, Fellow American Society of Landscape Architects.

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THE CITY PLAN

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DETROIT, 1915

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EDITORIALS

THE Seventh Conference on City Planning, held at Detroit last June, made valuable contributions to the literature on the subject, notably, in the papers and discussions of the two subjects which were chosen as the chief topics of the Conference: The Best Methods of Land Subdivision and The Constitution and Powers of a City Planning Authority. Dr. Whitten's paper on the latter subject was reproduced in the June number of THE CITY PLAN and the conclusions of the Conference committee on the subject of land subdivision are included in this number. But equally significant was the emphasis placed at the Conference on the need of a more general education of the public in the fundamentals of city planning and of a much more effective co-operation between the national organizations whose work is in the field of city planning. This was the note of many papers of the Conference and it was this idea that brought together in conference representatives of several national organizations, including the American Institute of Architects, American Society of Civil Engineers, the National Association of Builders' Exchanges, National Housing Association, American Institute of Consulting Engineers, American Society of Landscape Architects, American Civic Association, National Conference on City Planning. This meeting is briefly commented upon on another page of this issue.

THE Federal Bureau of Mines, of the Department of the Interior, has recently issued a pamphlet entitled, "Houses for Mining Towns." The first section of the report is devoted to the "arrangement of the town," and under that heading there are discussed such matters as "street systems," "widths of streets," "construction of sidewalks and gutters," "alleys," "dimensions of house lots," etc.

Readers of THE CITY PLAN to whom the report may have come

must have experienced two distinct emotions with regard to it. The first, it may be supposed, was surprised gratification at this evidence of the Government's interest in promoting town planning for even the humblest of little villages, and a cordial recognition of the great possibilities for good which an official pamphlet on the subject would possess. Those possibilities are fairly dazzling.

The other emotion, accompanying, we may suppose, the perusal of the report's town planning section, must have been one of disappointment, bordering on shock, at the number of statements that were not true, or that were of at least doubtful truth, and at the writer's cocksureness on matters that the most experienced city planners are still debating. The advocacy of "well-paved sidewalks," laid directly next to the gutter, of alleys in the residence sections, of "large yards," in which the area shall be secured "by depth rather than frontage," and of the squee-geed placing of houses on a diagonal street,—all sent out, as free advice, by the United States Government—is enough to give the creeps to serious students of city planning. Unfortunately, the possibility for good, which is possessed by such a pamphlet, is balanced by its possibilities for harm.

It is inspiring that the director of the Bureau of Mines should take so broad and high a view of his duties as to include in them a report designed to improve the residential environment of the mine workers. It is discouraging that the task of preparing the report and of examining and criticising the manuscript, which was to be issued under Government sanction and which will doubtless exert a tremendous influence on the manner of building miners' villages—and probably others, as well—should not have been entrusted to those better qualified to speak.

It is significant, by the way, of the light-hearted manner in which the dubious data are offered, that the section on the "arrangement of the town" is disposed of in six pages! But that only makes the matter worse, for well-intentioned mine owners can read it all, and remember it.

The whole episode offers sad contrast to the procedure of the English Government, which has resulted in the recent issue of a voluminous two-volume report on this and kindred subjects. For the English report represents long continued labor by a distinguished committee and includes the work of such town planning authorities as Seebohm Rowntree, Raymond Unwin and others. Those who believe in city planning do not like to see the United States make so poor a comparison.

THE CITY PLAN DEFINED BY A MUNICIPAL ENGINEER

NELSON P. LEWIS

Chief Engineer, Board of Estimate and Apportionment, New York City

THE Charter of the City of New York describes the city plan as a permanent map "showing the parks, streets, bridges and tunnels, and approaches to bridges and tunnels as heretofore laid out, adopted and established pursuant to law, and the maps and profiles included in or accompanying the same showing the grades of such streets duly fixed, adopted and established." The preparation of such a plan is little more than surveying, more or less precise surveying, it may be, but it may involve little study of the needs of the community, little sympathy with the traditions and ideals of its people, little exercise of imagination as to its future development and requirements. The city plan thus defined is too minute as to details and ignores the city as a whole, not only as it is, but as it will be.

A real plan is rather the general system of arterial streets and transportation lines by which the different sections of the existing and the future city will be connected with each other and with centers of population outside of the city limits; parks and open spaces and other resorts for recreation and amusement; the existing water front development and the space needed for its further increase; existing public and semi-public buildings and sites for those which may be required in the future. It is something to which the city may grow, not something to which it must be restricted or within which it must be confined as in a straitjacket.

The economic considerations which should control city planning are precisely those which should prevail in the design of a house, shop, railway terminal or water supply system; namely, adaptation to probable or possible increase in demand and capacity to supply that demand. When a city, occupying a strategic position, has begun a natural development which causes growing pains indicative of a misfit in its general plan, it is time to look toward the future, to adjust the plan to new conditions and to provide for still further growth. If the plan could be so made as to avoid the necessity for destructive changes, both the city at large and the individual property owner will be the gainers. To defer the correction of mistakes which are quite apparent in well developed sections of the city or to put off the adoption of a broader policy for those in process of development because land is expensive and costly

improvements would be destroyed is not unnatural even though unwise. To fail to take advantage of such object lessons in parts of the city where there are few, if any, improvements or where the street plan has not yet been definitely fixed is the height of folly.

Few writers on city planning have defined the elements of a comprehensive city plan, and most of those doing so have laid special emphasis upon the organization and administration of the city, particularly its social activities. The convenience and attractiveness of a city will depend conspicuously upon four features of its physical plan.

The first of them is the transportation system, or the means provided for getting in and out of the city, and for quick movement of passengers and freight from one part of the town to another. It is obvious that transit needs cannot be accurately foreseen, but provision should be made for improving and extending them when needed. A large part of the transportation will always be in the streets themselves, and its adequacy and efficiency will be largely determined by the location and dimensions of the streets in which the intra-urban transit lines are located. The difficulties which are presented in providing an adequate system of transportation within a city lacking in streets sufficiently wide to accommodate them is admirably illustrated by the case of the two-track rapid transit subway about to be built under William Street in New York City. This street is 40 feet wide and the width of excavation required for the subway is 29 feet, which at stations will be increased to the full width between building lines. The depth of the subway will vary from 25 to 31 feet below the surface and in general will be from 3 to 5 feet below mean high tide, reaching at one place a depth of 14 and at another place 20 feet below high water. The estimated cost of this one-half mile of railway, based upon the lowest bid, is \$2,254,670 or about \$850 a linear foot.

The great cost of this work is in large measure due to the fact that it was necessary to underpin the foundations of a number of tall buildings, 45 of which under 7 stories in height have an assessed value of \$7,000,000, 20 of from 7 to 12 stories are assessed at \$18,000,000, and 10 from 13 to 20 stories in height have an assessed value of \$15,000,000. It will be difficult to find a more forcible illustration of the need of providing in the plan of a city sufficient streets whose position will make them available for rapid transit routes and whose widths will be sufficient to permit the construction of such lines without an expense which would be prohibitive in most cities.

The second feature is the street system in and through which the daily

business is done and by which the people gain access to their homes and pass from these homes to their work, recreation and amusement. A street system once adopted and developed must remain indefinitely. While some streets may be widened and an occasional new street may be cut through existing improvements, the general street plan, once established and constructed, is fastened upon the city as long as the city itself lasts. A catastrophe such as the great fire of London in 1666 or the San Francisco fire in 1906 may afford an opportunity for a recasting of the plan for a considerable area, but it is seldom availed of.

Few cities have a street system which has been planned as a unit. In Europe they have had their beginning in a cluster of houses built under the shadow of a feudal castle. In this country the most fortunate of them have had their beginning in a New England village green, which has made an admirable starting point. The plans for subsequent additions have often been a matter of chance.

One of the characteristics of such city planning, as has been done in this country, is the adoption of a standard lot and block unit and the combination of these standard blocks into series which will determine the location of what are to become the secondary and even the principal arteries of traffic. This is a reversal of the natural and the logical method in which a city should develop. The standard lot and block is a habit which has persisted with no very good reason. If the arterial and secondary streets had first been located in a rational manner and the subdivision of these areas had been controlled by them instead of being allowed to control them, many of our cities would have more distinctive character and would be far more attractive and livable.

The third element includes the park and recreation facilities, upon which the comfort and health of the community are to a large degree dependent. It is true that a lack of proper parks may be supplied at any time, even when the space to be devoted to that purpose shall have been built upon and when the cost of their acquisition will be greatly enhanced, but a park system can be most economically and satisfactorily established in advance of other improvements, and facility of access to them and proper connections between the different park units will depend upon the street system, so that the park plan should be worked out in connection with the street plan.

The fourth element referred to is the location of public buildings, which may render the conduct of public business convenient or difficult and may give a favorable or unfavorable impression to visitors. Public buildings like business buildings can be changed in location as necessity and

convenience may require, but the suitability of their sites, whether they are convenient and commanding or awkward and unprepossessing, will depend upon the streets about them and leading to them, so that the location of these buildings should receive the most careful study in the preparation of the general plan of the city. The study of this problem should not be confined to the great buildings, but certain municipal blocks should be set aside for the accommodation in one block of a high school, a grammar school, a branch library, a public bath; in another block a police station, a fire engine house, a municipal garage or stable, and a repair shop. These various buildings could be designed to harmonize with each other and the city would acquire a distinction by such grouping, while the expense of heating, maintenance and repairs would be considerably decreased.

The responsibility of the municipal engineer for the future planning of our cities is very great, and at the same time it presents an opportunity which should be welcomed. The exercise of vision and imagination on their part has too often been deemed a dangerous incursion into a field foreign to their proper activities, and yet the engineer is the first man on the ground in laying the foundations upon which our cities are to be built. His eyes have been so closely fixed upon the drawing board that he has seldom looked up to catch a vision of the great city that is to come, the complex organism known as the modern city with its varied activities, its difficult social problems, its ugliness or its beauty, its awkwardness or its convenience, its capacity to debase or to elevate its citizens. Every blunder that he makes will afford an opportunity for some one else to win applause for a plan to correct it through large expenditure of public funds. It often seems as if the admiration excited by what are commonly called city planning projects is in direct proportion to the amount of destruction of existing improvements and the extent of the disarrangement of the existing plan which may be involved.

The writer does not envy the architect who offers an ingenious and effective solution of a difficulty caused by lack of foresight in city planning, but he deplores the fact that such blunders have been so commonly made by engineers, and more particularly the fact that the engineers are so inclined to go on repeating the same mistakes. The making of a comprehensive plan for the future development of a city or for correcting the obvious defects of an existing plan is not the work of a few weeks or months or even years. It is more likely to be the result of many years of patient work, and the men who did it will be forgotten before it is finally carried out. It is no one man job and it is never actually finished.

However carefully and skilfully the first plan may have been made, unforeseen changes will take place, new methods of transportation will be developed, new inventions will powerfully affect the social life of the community, and the plan, where still susceptible of change, must be modified to meet these changed conditions. The groundwork of a comprehensive city plan must obviously be laid by the regularly employed technical staff of the city with the aid of special expert advisers; but the organization created for this purpose should be carefully selected. It should contain men who are familiar with the past history and traditions of the community and are in sympathy with them, but who can appreciate changing conditions and adapt the old to the new without destroying it. The work should be directed by men who do not think the exercise of imagination an engineering crime; men who are enthusiasts without being doctrinaires; men who are content to do their work well without hope of popular applause and who are willing to await the verdict as to their work which will be rendered by coming generations. They will not, however, be obliged to wait indefinitely for recognition if they manifest an intelligent interest in this subject and an appreciation of its importance.

BEST METHODS OF LAND SUBDIVISION

E. P. GOODRICH

Consulting Engineer, New York City

AT the Sixth Conference on City Planning held in Toronto, 1914, a special committee consisting of some of the members of the executive committee of the Conference was appointed to investigate the prevailing methods of land subdivision in the various parts of the United States and present to the Seventh Conference in Detroit a report of its finding. The plan adopted by the committee as set out in the final circular was broadly to gather and digest any information likely to be of practical assistance to those responsible for maintaining and improving the quality of land subdivision plans. But the committee decided to concentrate its efforts in the beginning upon the study of the most fundamental question in its opinion, namely, what are the best lot dimensions to adopt under various typical conditions commonly found in America? In order that the information or conclusions might be as convincing as possible and that the elements of chance in locality

should be eliminated, various types of cities were selected, comprising large cities and small cities, old cities and relatively new cities, cities in different sections of the country and cities with different types of topography. An outline of the information desired, and suggested methods of procuring it, were submitted to local committees and the following report is a very brief statement of the conclusions based entirely on the information submitted.

Reports were received from:

Berkeley, California	Louisville, Kentucky
Boston, Massachusetts	New York, New York
Bridgeport, Connecticut	Newark, New Jersey
Brookline, Massachusetts	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Chicago, Illinois	Syracuse, New York
Cleveland, Ohio	Washington, D.C.
Detroit, Michigan	Montreal, Canada
Kansas City, Missouri	Vancouver, B.C.

and much information was extracted from a paper by Lawrence Veiller, submitted to the Third National Conference on City Planning held in Philadelphia, in 1911. Information obtained on several of the items in the committee's circular was too scanty to warrant conclusions, so that this report will be limited to a consideration of the following topics:

Lot size:

- (a) Typical dimensions and typical tendencies.
- (b) Effect of size on buildings.
- (c) Effect of size on values.
- (d) Effect of restrictions.
- (e) Alleys.
- (f) Standards.

(a) Typical dimensions and typical tendencies:

Philadelphia with an average lot of 15 x 50 was found to be almost in a class by itself; the same lot size being used to some extent in Baltimore. New England, as represented at least by Boston and Brookline, had irregular lot sizes with a tendency toward 40 to 60 x 90 to 100; New York and Newark had a fixed standard at from 20 to 25 x 100; middle and western cities an average lot size of 50 x 150. A general tendency was found toward reduction in depth of lot, except in New York, Newark and Chicago, where 100 or 125 feet is the fixed standard. Cities with lots deeper than 100 feet are tending toward that figure, and New England with its irregular lots is tending below 100. In Philadelphia the development of the one-family house and the comparatively recent growth of row houses has brought about a lot of the

narrowest possible frontage and depth. Widths in all places except Philadelphia tend down to about 30 feet, with a general recommendation for a lot wider than 20 feet.

(b) Effect of lot size on buildings:

Lot area seems to be the original determining factor. Deep lots are made narrow, narrow lots lead to narrow buildings, bad for residence or business. Deep lots, even down to 70 or 80 feet tend toward having rear buildings, often residences. These conditions are likely to produce congestion and lower values. Except in Philadelphia lot size has generally fixed building size and number of houses per lot. In Philadelphia the single family house has developed the small lot.

(c) Effect of lot and incidental building size on real estate values:

The information under this topic was hardly sufficient for any conclusions but it seems to show that where growth is active either in the number of residences or the conversion of residential buildings to other uses, the existing lot and building size has little influence on real estate values. Where conversion is slower larger plots are worth more because more easily converted. Established poor occupancy tends to depress or at least restrain increase of values through natural depreciation and shift of classes of occupants dependent upon condition of dwelling. Several cities report that land values are independent of lot size or building class, and depend on useableness of the property.

(d) Effect of restrictions:

Legal restrictions as to the per cent of lot which may be covered, the size and shape of yards or courts and the location of the building on the lot should be added to defining lot sizes if best results are to be obtained. By restrictions are meant those imposed by the developer of the property as well as by the municipality.

(e) Alleys:

The general feeling is that the effort to make use of waste lands in deep lots has been one of the chief producers of alleys, but in some cities they are found to be deliberately designed. The conclusion in all the reports is that whether deliberate or evolutionary they are bad as now used. But the point was well made that the objection constantly made to alleys that they lead to the erection of rear buildings was laying up against the alley something for which it was not directly responsible. For instance, rear buildings are put up on deep lots unless prohibited by law whether there are alleys or not.

(f) Standards:

Although the information points to a desire for a standard in depth, at least not to exceed 100 or 125 feet, the discussion of the point brought out some very strong reasons why lot sizes should not be standardized. The feeling left after the discussion was that for a high-class residence any limitation in width or depth might be objectionable. For the residence of moderate price, as well as for one built to rent for \$10 to \$12 a month, it would certainly be desirable to find the most advantageous width and depth of lot, but an attempt even to set a minimum depth and minimum frontage might result in securing an undesirable adherence to the lowest dimensions.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The committee is convinced that the study should be continued more intensively in the cities already studied and that statistics from other cities should be gathered. It realizes that the conclusions already drawn can be only tentative since they are based on insufficient data and that as far as further physical, sociological and economic facts are concerned they have not been received in a measure sufficiently broad to be able to draw any conclusions.

The committee will welcome data on any point connected with this subject sent to the office of the Secretary of the Conference, 19 Congress Street, Boston, Mass.

The work of one of the local committees is illustrated on the opposite page, and blueprints showing the work of other committees, as well as copies of the final circular, may be obtained by addressing the secretary's office.

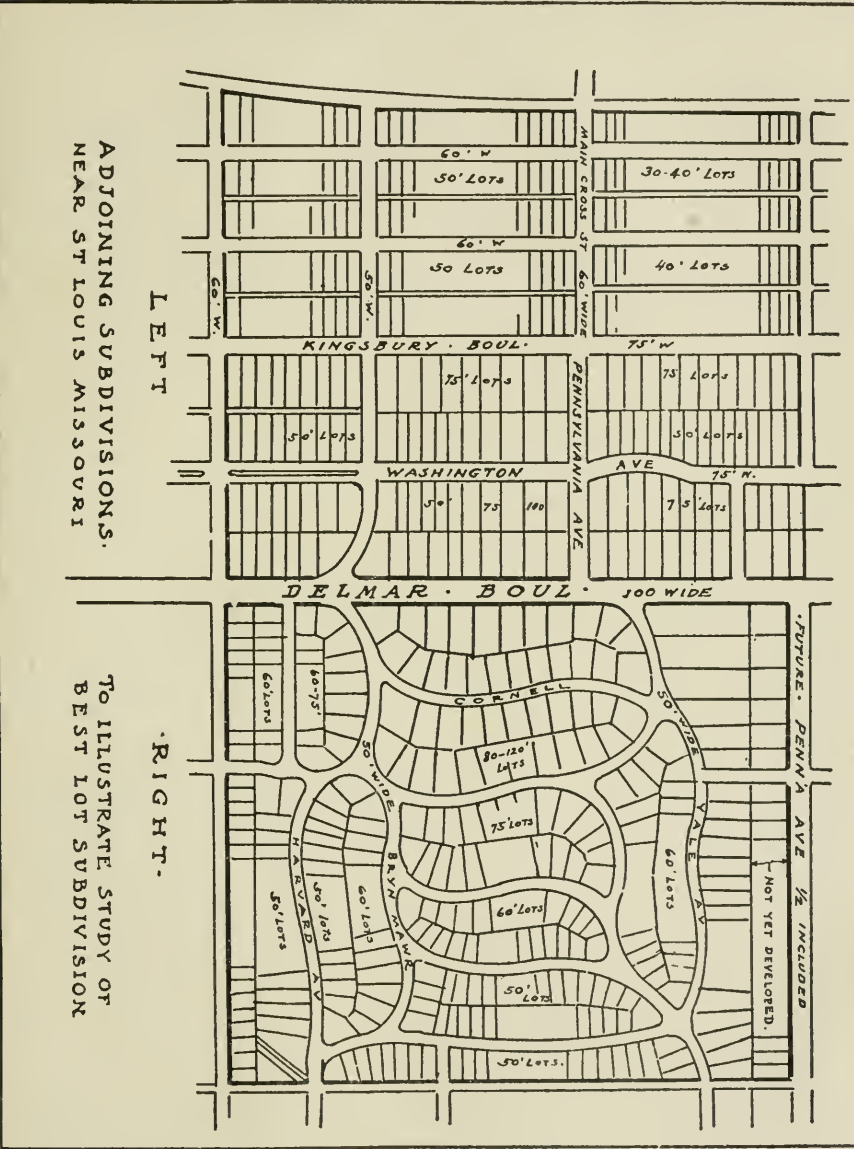
STATEMENT TO ACCOMPANY PLAN ON OPPOSITE PAGE

	Left	Right
Area of tract	90 acres	92 acres
Number of lots	380 lots	370 lots
Building frontage	17,600 feet	22,400 feet
Side frontage	8,200 feet	5,600 feet
Average frontage	49 feet	63 feet
Average depth	165 feet	135 feet
*Cost per front foot	\$22.00	\$17.00

*NOTE.—Based on same original cost of land: \$2,000 per acre, same grading cost and same price per unit for improvements.

The tract on the right has advantage of eliminating waste side frontage, of narrower streets and greater privacy, of shallower lots and decreased cost of construction and maintenance, of wider frontage at less cost per lot. The result has been, more attractive individual improvements and architectural design and the better upkeep of the property.

THE CITY PLAN



LAND SUBDIVISION: THE POINT OF VIEW OF THE REAL ESTATE DEVELOPER

PAUL A. HARSCH

Vice-President, E. H. Close Realty Company, Toledo

THE landscape architect or city planning expert is often a "dreamer of dreams," an idealist pure and simple. On the other hand the real estate operator is, in a great number of cases, entirely given over to the idea of making money out of his operations, of getting his commodity ready for the market at the least possible expense and with the smallest delay, and often without consideration for either his reputation or the interest and welfare of the purchasers of his property or the community as a whole.

The city planning expert must learn to govern his ambitions, dreams and visions, must be able to make of them an inspiration and directing force for the molding of practical plans for harmonious real estate development. Coincidentally the greed and avarice of the get-rich-quick land speculator must be curbed and regulated — by law if necessary — and the ignorance of his well meaning but misguided brother operator corrected by an educational propaganda, to which I shall later advert.

Let us take first that horn of the dilemma presented by the incompetent and ill-equipped city planning expert. What shall we do with him? Any real estate operation, no matter how small, quickly runs into money. Blunders are expensive, dangerous and at times discovered too late to correct.

I believe that when the landscape architects can approach every problem of the real estate man from the sale standpoint and can convince him that they can save him money, ease his burdens, make his investment more sure, they will have solved the great problem that confronts them. For when they have won over the real estate fraternity, captured it "horse, foot and dragoons" as it were, it will be but a short step to the day when the great civic reforms they all dream of will be presented to them for achievement. Let me repeat then that I think what we need most, if we are to coöperate, is a better equipped lot of men to carry out the work they profess to do.

A landscape architect, to be really great in his line, must be more than a civil engineer who can run grades and streets curved or straight, as the case may be. He must be more than a planting expert, familiar with the living things of the great outdoors. He must be more than a mechanical expert on matters of construction. He must be more than

an artist with an eye to the beautiful in nature. He must be all of these, and besides he must be so practical and everyday and commonplace in his thought that he never forgets either the cost of what he proposes to do or, more important, that his work must finally stand the crucial test of "Will it sell the property at a profit?" For if it will not do this latter, then is his labor lost and his client's money wasted. But worse than this, the community is cursed with a mistake that it may take decades to outgrow.

Second and equal in importance is the matter of public education. The public should be more fully apprised of the nature of city planning. I get almost all my knowledge of city planning activities from a great Boston daily which has an international circulation and which comments editorially at frequent intervals on this interesting subject.

Why has not such coöperation been secured all over the country? Why does the public not know the interesting fact that both in Massachusetts and Illinois two of our greatest colleges have established chairs of city planning? Point out the bad in realty development, the unfortunate in civic growth and the proposed remedies, and I assure you the real estate man will be in line because the public will demand that he do so.

One of two things is almost certain to be true of every land development. Either a present or a future need has been seen and is being supplied or anticipated, or else the sale of questionable land allotments is being stimulated fraudulently. It is, of course, patent to all that the operator following the first named course is the only conscientious one. The others, and their name is legion, are the ones who, regardless of all ethics, grasp upon some advantage of location or of transportation and by highly colored advertising frequently sell their additions in a day. What this fellow may desire in the way of expert advice the landscape architect cares little. But his case will stand analysis.

Just now in Toledo there is an unusual demand for cheap lots in outlying districts. This demand has led to the platting of acreage property in some instances as far as ten miles from the city. This seems beyond reason when it is recalled that our population is still under 200,000. Lots in these additions sell, however, as many as 336 of the 30 foot variety being sold recently near Toledo in two days' selling. It is such questions as these which make me approach the proposition involved in the subject assigned to me with the greatest caution.

What are the best methods of land subdivision from the point of view of the real estate developer? Broadly they are those methods which will

give him a maximum of property beauty and a minimum of upkeep expense, the largest possible number of feet of frontage and the least possible waste. This takes us directly to the city planning expert, and it seems to me that it is the duty and to the profit of all practical idealists to make those of us who do not know it realize it.

A planning expert, no matter how skilled, cannot make a poor property sell. That is, if the land selected for improvement is badly located with reference to its surroundings, or if, because of topographical conditions, it is unsuitable for platting, or if it be inaccessible, or if the cost of development be prohibitive, we at once conclude we are not interested and seek for a tract where these conditions are absent. We naturally and inevitably seek to meet what we concede to be a coming need. If we are able to size up the situation rightly, we have a section of land ready to turn over to the expert for preparation to meet the need we have foreseen by the time the need grows into a demand.

Having reached this point we must again be guided by expediency, for the people of one locality are as different in their likes and dislikes from those in another, in the matter of homes, as they are in their commercial pursuits and intellectual tastes. Until they can be educated to a different viewpoint we must give them what they want. Therefore the question is not what the real estate man thinks and wants, but what the people of his community want. Thus city planning is merely meeting this demand in a scientific way and so relating each individual development to the whole that the final completed city will be a thing of beauty and a joy to every dweller therein.

It is not what the city planner wants, nor what we real estate men want. It is what the public wants — a great variety of developments, so that all tastes and all pocketbooks may be satisfied and the requirements of widely differing group units of population met. This is our task and it is our further fine responsibility — to supply all the varieties of development demanded by the public in a way that will insure the public full value and the community an asset for the future. In simpler language, we can sell cheap lots or costly ones, but they must all be inherently good ones.

If we educate our public to an appreciation of the beautiful in all civic development, we are leading the way to the ultimate good. This brings me to the point at which I started — that the whole problem before us, both that part confronting you and that confronting us, is a matter of education and a matter of publicity. We must put city planning into the everyday life of the community.

NOTES ON RECENT CITY PLANNING EVENTS

AT the City Planning Conference in Detroit, June 7-9, 1915, thirty-one delegates officially appointed by fourteen national organizations met to consider the possibilities of co-operating in extending knowledge of city planning. At the meeting there was a general feeling that the members of national organizations whose work lay in the city planning field ought to have a clearer understanding of the meaning of city planning and of the part that their own organization or profession could and should take in a field of such growing importance; and, secondly, that each organization should use whatever machinery it possessed to educate the general public in the fundamentals of the subject. To this end a committee on "plan and scope" was appointed, consisting of twenty-two members, representing twenty-one national organizations, to consider the subject matter during the summer and present a plan in the fall. It is the intention of this new committee to co-operate closely with the Committee on Publicity and Public Information of the National Conference on City Planning.

Boston.—The Council of Fifty recently organized in Boston as a result of two public meetings includes representatives of thirty-five city and town planning boards, social and civic organizations in and about Boston. Its aim is to create and stimulate an intelligent understanding of city and town planning, and "to produce co-operation and unity of purpose between official boards and interested organizations and individuals who desire attention focused upon securing a practical and adequate plan for the development of the Boston District." It is intended that principal attention shall be given to securing the large and comprehensive plan, and that energies shall not be dissipated in trying to bring about comparatively minor, temporary improvements. The Council will conduct a civic exhibition for ten days the middle of November. The American City Bureau exhibit will be used; in addition, a local exhibit of what has been done, what is being done and what ought to be done for the development of the Metropolitan Boston District.

California.—At the Second California State Conference on City Planning, September 7th, 8th, and 9th, 1915, ex-President Taft was the chief speaker on "The City Planning Idea." At least three states are now finding the great value of "state conferences on city planning," Massachusetts and California, and New York indirectly through its Conference of Mayors and Other Public Officials.

THE CITY PLAN

Ohio Cities.—The city planning law passed by the Ohio legislature of 1915, which gives the mayor the power to appoint a plan commission becomes effective in January, 1916. Mayors of several cities have already indicated that they favor the appointment of planning commissions. Other cities of Ohio, among them being Toledo, Dayton and Cleveland, have in their new charters a provision either giving the mayor the right to appoint or, as in Cleveland, making it mandatory for him to appoint a city planning commission.

Westchester County, New York.—The county board of supervisors has recommended a bill to the legislature of 1916 providing for a county planning commission. The commissioners are to serve without salary, but an appropriation of \$5,000 has been made to cover necessary expenses of the work. Westchester County, with its great number of cities, villages, and townships, each carrying out its development without much regard to the plan of its neighbors, has a great need of a commission whose function will be to co-ordinate the plans of all these communities in order to secure the best arrangement of highways, parks, parkways, water supply, drainage system, etc. This is right in line with the proposals for metropolitan plan commissions, but is the only suggestion for a county plan commission which we know of.

St. Louis.—The necessity of a citizens' committee to co-operate with an official plan commission has been recognized in St. Louis by the organization of a citizens' city planning committee, consisting of about 350 citizens of St. Louis. The first meeting is scheduled for an early date in October.

CITY PLAN COMMISSIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

	1914	1915		1914	1915
Massachusetts	30	45	Illinois	1	1
Pennsylvania	9	17	Nebraska	1	2
New Jersey	3	4	Missouri	1	1
Connecticut	3	6	Kentucky	2	2
New York	3	6	Rhode Island	1	1
Ohio		1	Minnesota	1	1
California		6	Louisiana		1
Wisconsin	1	1	Florida		1
Maryland	1	2	Kansas		1
Michigan	1	1			
Total, 1914				58	
Total, 1915				100	

The New Plan Commissions.—Worcester, Mass.; Amherst, Mass.; Allentown, Pa.; New Britain, Ct.; Kansas City, Kan.; San Anselmo, Cal.; Belleville, N.J.; Miami, Fla.; Niagara Falls, N.Y.

What Dates Shall We Reserve For Your City?

The American City Bureau's Exhibition of American and Foreign City Planning is booked for ten days each for

BOSTON in November, 1915

NEW HAVEN in January, 1916

Shall we send you copies of letters from cities in which the Exhibition has been shown? The following excerpts are typical:

NEW YORK CITY, N.Y.

GEORGE McANENY, President, Board of Aldermen: A comprehensive and well developed collection of exhibits, bound to stimulate interest wherever shown.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

SIEGFRIED GOETZE, Civic Architect and Landscape Engineer: Your exhibit was the foundation of the organization of the City Planning Association of Los Angeles.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

M. M. O'SHAUGHNESSY, City Engineer: A very valuable influence in educating the citizens. In future, all work of a similar kind will have my hearty support.

OAKLAND, CAL.

FRANK K. MOTT, Mayor: I express my satisfaction with the interest which the exhibit developed in Oakland.

CINCINNATI, OHIO

T. C. POWELL, President, Chamber of Commerce; Vice-President, Queen & Crescent Railway System: I congratulate you on the City Planning Exhibit brought here under the auspices of the United City Planning Bureau. I spent several hours on different occasions inspecting the exhibit. It well repays a prolonged study.

TORONTO, CANADA

THOMAS ADAMS, Town Planning Advisor, Commission of Conservation, Canada: I am glad to express my appreciation of the value of your excellent exhibition on city planning. In the process of educating the public, nothing is more valuable than a good exhibition. I am sure the average city would find it a good investment.

SANTIAGO DE CHILE, S. A.

DON ENRIQUE DÖLL, Commissioner-General for the Municipal Congress of Chile: The commission organized by the Congress of Municipal Government is completely satisfied. Representatives of municipalities have been much inspired.

RICHMOND, VA.

GEORGE AINSLIE, Mayor: I know of nothing else in existence that can give so much practical instruction in the same time and at the same cost.

NEWARK, N. J.

HARLAND BARTHOLOMEW, Secretary, City Plan Commission: Has proved beneficial not alone to the thousands who saw it, but it has served to foster a somewhat closer co-operation.

JERSEY CITY, N. J.

ERNEST H. ROWE, Executive Secretary, Chamber of Commerce: A most valuable contribution to create public opinion for the planning of this city.

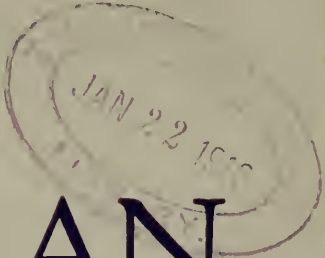
Dates in October and December are still available; but as negotiations are under way with several cities, prompt action is advisable.

For dates and terms, address:

AMERICAN CITY BUREAU, 87 Nassau St., New York

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THE CITY PLAN



A QUARTERLY

JANUARY · 1916

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THE CITY PLAN

Published Quarterly as the Official Organ of the National Conference on City Planning

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JANUARY · 1916

NUMBER 4

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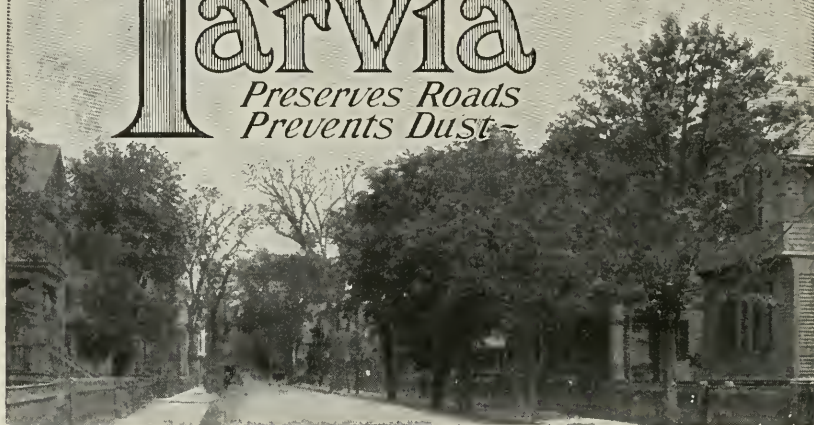
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The City Plan will be sent to subscribers for 25 cents the copy, \$1.00 a year.
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PUBLICATION OFFICE
NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CITY PLANNING
19 CONGRESS STREET, BOSTON

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EDITORIAL

THE CLEVELAND CONFERENCE

IN its choice of meeting place, the executive committee of the Conference has always had in view two considerations: first, what material the city offered to the student of city planning, and second, what profit the city would have from a meeting of the students of city planning and a discussion of planning problems. Cleveland's monumental civic center, in itself meriting careful study on the ground, is only one of the fine physical achievements to the credit of the city. Equally worth study on the administrative side is the working of the city's new plan commission under perhaps the most interesting planning legislation yet passed. What Cleveland will profit from the Conference depends on the skill of the program makers, the opportunity for discussion and frequent exchange of experience, and above all the receptivity of the Cleveland people.

WE are glad to publish the following comment in the same space occupied in the last issue of *THE CITY PLAN* by the editorial which it reviews:

To the Editor of *THE CITY PLAN*,

National Conference on City Planning,
19 Congress St., Boston, Mass.

December 13, 1915.

Dear Sir: The writer has read the editorial in your issue for October, 1915, on the bulletin entitled "Houses for Mining Towns," published by the Bureau of Mines, and it has occurred to him that comment by one neither connected with the bureau nor the periodical—an interested bystander, so to speak—might be of interest.

It appears that the author of the editorial misunderstands somewhat the purpose of the bulletin. The subject is frankly shown by the title to be "Houses for Mining Towns," and the arrangement of the town is

touched upon only incidentally and no more than is necessary to supplement the later more complete discussion of the miner's house. The inclusion of these incidental references to the arrangements of the town in six pages is, therefore, hardly sufficient ground for the charge that town planning has been treated light-heartedly. And the suggestion on page 6 of the bulletin, that the landscape architect, the sanitary engineer and the housing architect be called into consultation on larger developments, is evidence of a larger appreciation of this phase of the subject by the author of the bulletin than the editorial gives him credit for.

The writer has had occasion to do a considerable amount of sanitary engineering and improvement work in connection with mining towns and has had impressed upon him the impracticability of completely attaining the ideals of city planning in such a development. One always finds it necessary to appreciate the distinction between the practical suggestions which can be put into use in mining villages and the ideals which have been developed for the planning of permanent cities and such need is strongly emphasized by an acquaintance with and knowledge of the many advances yet to be made in the ordinary mining town.

Acquainted as he is with these limitations, the writer considers some of the suggestions to which the editorial objects most strongly as distinctly practical. Thus, while he has on several occasions strongly expressed his conviction that alleys are unnecessary and undesirable in the residential portions of communities with water-carriage sewerage; he knows of but few mining towns which are so sewerred. And where the disposal of excreta must be handled by some form of privy system, he knows of no satisfactory substitute for the alley as a passageway for the agency of the collection system. Under these circumstances he would, therefore, join with the author of the bulletin in his "advocacy of alleys."

This unpretentious bulletin on suggested improvements in miners' houses, ought not in fairness be compared with the extensive two volume treatise of the English committee on mining towns.

And it is unfortunate that the publication of the National Conference on City Planning should indulge in criticism of so little constructive value of this interesting and laudable extension of the activities of a recently created bureau of the Federal Government operating under limited appropriations.

Yours very truly,

MORRIS KNOWLES, *Consulting Engineer.*

STREET SURFACES AND THE CITY PLAN

ARTHUR H. BLANCHARD

Professor in charge of the Graduate Course in Highway Engineering at Columbia University and Consulting Highway Engineer, New York City

ROADWAY surfaces for city streets will be considered from the standpoint of economical adaptability to local conditions. Certain problems affecting the maintenance of street surfaces will be discussed briefly.

Bureau of Highways.—It will be assumed that the "City Plan" has been evolved and that the matter of street surfaces is under the jurisdiction of the proper municipal authority, namely, the Chief of the Bureau of Highways. If street surfaces are to be economically and efficiently designed, constructed and maintained, all details pertaining to streets, due to their interdependent relationship, should be under the direction of the head of the Highway Department. There will be cited two examples, which are typical of conditions in many American cities. In the case of the Borough of the Bronx of New York City, the control of highway work, as outlined in the following schedule, is widely dif-fused. The outline of conditions in Philadelphia shows a material im-provement, although the concentration of all the activities listed would promote efficiency.

HIGHWAY ORGANIZATION, BOROUGH OF THE BRONX, NEW YORK CITY

Mapping	}	Topographical	}	Chief Engineer of Sewers and Highways	
Street Numbering		Engineer			
Design	}	Engineer of			
Subsurface		Design			
Surveys	}	Engineer of			
Construction		Highways			
Renewals	}				
Repairs and Maintenance	}	Supt. of	}		
Encroachments and Obstructions	}	Highways			
Street Cleaning	}	Dept. of			
Ashes and Garbage	}	Street Cleaning			

HIGHWAY ORGANIZATION, PHILADELPHIA

Mapping	}	Bureau of Surveys	}	Director of Public Works
Surveys		14 District		
Design		Surveyors		
Subsurface Structures	}	Chief of Highways		
Construction		and		
Renewals		Street Cleaning		
Maintenance and Repairs				
Encroachments and Obstructions				
Street Cleaning	}	Director of		
Ashes and Garbage		Public Safety		
Street Numbering	}			

(Compiled by MR. NELSON P. LEWIS)

Roadway Widths.—In the evolution of the "City Plan" the main arteries of travel, radial and circumferential streets, primary, secondary, and tertiary business thorofares, and major and minor residential streets have been designated. In the determination of proper widths of roadways for the several classes of streets, the present and future traffic must be given due consideration. While it is true that a certain minimum width may be stated for each of the types of streets, the economical and suitable minimum must be ascertained for each class and, in many cases, for each street in the design of roadway widths for a given municipality. As a basis for the estimate of future traffic, a comprehensive traffic census should be taken. The census divisions of traffic recommended by the Committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers on "Materials for Road Construction" follows: One-horse vehicles; two- or three-horse vehicles; four or more horse vehicles; motor cycles; motor runabouts; motor touring cars (open or closed); motor busses; motor trucks. Some general observations are stated as illustrating the relationship of traffic and roadway widths. For streets subjected to motor truck traffic, it is important to note that a large commercial truck backed up against the curb will occupy a length of about $13\frac{1}{2}$ feet. A truck on either side of the street in this position would therefore occupy 27 feet. The width out to out of the ordinary commercial motor truck is between 6 feet and 8 feet 6 inches. To provide for the easy passage of two lines of vehicles between those backed up against the curbs would thus require an additional width of carriageway of about 17 feet, which would make the total width of carriageway about 44 feet. For streets in retail business districts the pedestrian traffic is of more importance and the sidewalks should be given adequate width. In residential districts a carriageway of from 30 to 36 feet is generally ample. Where a residential street is subjected to a light local traffic consisting principally of delivery wagons and pleasure vehicles, there is no need for a roadway wider than 20 feet.

The number of lines of traffic for which provision is to be made on a given street is a controlling factor in the determination of the width of the roadway. In the days of horse-drawn vehicles, 7 or 8 feet was considered the unit width for one line of travel. In this connection it is of interest to note that the Highway Committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers recommended several years ago that "Where motor traffic forms a considerable proportion of the total traffic likely to use a highway, the unit width of traffic lines should be considered as nine or ten feet, instead of seven or eight feet as heretofore, because of the

greater clearance required for the safe passing of the units of such traffic." Furthermore, as far back as 1908, the First International Road Congress, held in Paris, adopted the following resolution pertaining to the width of a highway to be subjected to two lines of traffic: "There should be but one roadway for every kind of vehicle proportioned to the intensity of the traffic, 19 feet 8 inches (6 meters) wide at least."

Suitable Types of Surfaces.—In the selection of economical and suitable types of roads and pavements to be used for roadways of streets, the properties of a perfect surface should be given careful consideration. An ideal road or pavement should be durable, noiseless, suitable for users, easily cleaned and made dustless, non-slippery for horses and all classes of vehicles under varying climatic conditions, easily maintained, should yield neither dust nor mud, have a low tractive resistance, low first cost, low annual cost, low maintenance charge, and an aesthetic and impervious surface.

Durability.—The life of a road or pavement is expressed either in terms of (a) the number of years during which it can be maintained in a satisfactory condition at a cost per year which has not reached an amount so that reconstruction is economical or, (b) the total number of tons per yard or foot of width that the road or pavement is subjected to during its life. As durability is a function of a number of variables among which the amount of traffic is of primary importance, method (b) usually conveys more information than the first method.

In employing method (a), based on practice in central western cities, the following average values for "life" have been assigned by Fixmer to several types of roads and pavements. In each case the estimated life is based on the supposition that the road or pavement is used under suitable local conditions as indicated in the second column.

Type of Road or Pavement	Suitable Street	Life in Years
Granite block	Heavy traffic	30
Creosoted wood block	Business	15-20
Brick	Business	20
Sheet asphalt	Residential	16
Asphaltic concrete	Residential and boulevards	12-20
Cement-concrete	Light traffic	6-10
Bituminous macadam	Light traffic	8
Broken stone	Light traffic	4

Sanitary Qualities.—The sanitariness of a road or pavement is based on its imperviousness, smoothness, and freedom from dust and mud. From the standpoint of the public health, noiselessness might properly be considered under this head, as it affects the health of nervous people.

The several roads and pavements may be classified as follows, the groups being given in the order of their desirable sanitary properties: first group, sheet asphalt, bituminous concrete, cement-concrete; second group, creosoted wood block, bituminous macadam, bituminous surface, stone block and brick, with well filled joints; third group, broken stone, gravel, earth, stone block and brick, with open joints.

Noiselessness.—Tillson states that a wood block pavement is least noisy, followed by asphalt, asphalt block, bitulithic, brick, and granite block pavements.

Slipperiness.—The comparison of pavements from the standpoint of slipperiness has naturally been confined by early investigators to the effect on horses. It is evident that future investigations along this line should include consideration of slipperiness for all classes of vehicles under varying climatic conditions. From the former viewpoint, that is, with reference to horses, stone block with joints filled with a bituminous filler ranks first as a non-slippery pavement. Hillside vitrified brick or ordinary vitrified block constructed with a bituminous filler is adaptable for steep grades. The other pavements and roads rank in the following order as non-slippery: gravel, broken stone, bituminous concrete, stone block, and brick with cement grouted joints, bituminous macadam, bituminous surfaces, sheet asphalt, and wood block. The table gives a general idea relative to the maximum grades on which it is permissible to use different types of roads and pavements.

Granite block pavement with bituminous filled joints	15 to 20%
Brick pavement with bituminous filled joints.....	10 to 15%
Earth road	10%
Gravel road	7 to 10%
Broken stone road	7 to 10%
Bituminous concrete pavement.....	5 to 8%
Stone block and brick pavements with cement grouted joints	5%
Bituminous macadam pavement.....	3 to 5%
Cement-concrete pavement.....	3 to 5%
Broken stone road with bituminous surface	3 to 5%
Sheet asphalt pavement	3 to 4%
Wood block pavement	2 to 3%

Annual Cost.—The relative economy of different types of roads and pavements can only be ascertained by comparing the annual costs. The annual cost is a combination of the following variables: interest on the initial cost of the roadway, the annual maintenance charge and an annuity which will in N years, the so-called life of the roadway provide a fund equal to the cost of reconstruction. If C=annual cost, A=first cost, r=rate of interest, I=annual maintenance charge, and x=annuity, the annual cost may be expressed by the formula, $C=A \frac{r}{1-r} + \frac{I}{1-r} + \frac{x}{1-r}$.

Although theoretically the pavement giving the lowest annual cost is the most economical one to build, there are other financial considerations which sometimes make it necessary to select some other type of pavement. For instance, the amount of money at hand for the improvement may not be sufficient to pay for the first cost of construction of a pavement which would give the lowest annual cost. Again, a road or pavement that might be the most economical would require such frequent repairs as to interfere with the traffic and business conducted on it.

Methods of Comparison.—The primary object of a detailed comparison of the relative merits of various roads and pavements is to enable the engineer to determine within certain limits the method of construction, and, in some cases, the method of maintenance which are adaptable to local conditions from the standpoints of economy and efficiency.

As an aid in comparison it is advisable to have at hand a table covering numerical values of certain factors which are susceptible to such form of comparison. The following table, which illustrates the treatment of the problem along these lines of investigation, gives assigned values for some of these characteristics of the different types of roads and pavements on the bases of ten for the value of the characteristic in an ideal pavement.

	Ideal Pavement	Sheet Asphalt	Brick on Concrete	Stone Block on Concrete	Wood Block on Concrete	Cement- Concrete	Bituminous Concrete	Bituminous Macadam	Bituminous Surface on Broken Stone	Broken Stone with Dust Palliative	Broken Stone	Gravel	Earth
First cost	10	3	5	1	1	6	7	7	8	9	9	9	10
Ease of traction	10	10	8	3	9	9	9	8	8	6	6	5	2
Non-slipperiness	10	4	8	7	4	6	7	7	7	8	10	10	10
Ease of cleaning	10	10	9	7	9	8	9	9	9	3	3	1	1
Noiselessness	10	7	6	3	9	6	9	9	9	10	10	10	10
Non-productive of dust	10	10	9	8	7	7	9	8	8	6	4	3	1

It is necessary for each engineer to modify tabular information of this character in order that the values shall be based upon local conditions. For instance, it is obvious that the numerical values assigned to "First Cost" will vary materially in different sections. It is likewise apparent that it is impracticable to blindly add up numerical values with the expectation that the type having the highest value is the pavement to be employed. In the great majority of cases one or more factors will also have a greater weight than certain other properties. Of course it is possible to weight the values of a table and then obtain totals for comparison. The totals obtained by the summation of numerical values of properties referred to in the above table must, however, be supplemented

by values attributed to factors which are not covered in the table, due to their complex and variable character. As examples of such factors may be cited cost of maintenance, durability, etc., which properties are intimately related to local conditions pertaining to a given highway.

Street Cleaning.—Public health, safety, and convenience require that roadways should be kept clean. The close relationship existing between dust laying and street cleaning is obvious. On certain types of roadways, such as earth, gravel, and broken stone, the problem is a combination of cleaning and dust laying. On such pavements as brick, stone block, cement-concrete, wood block, bituminous macadam, bituminous concrete, and sheet asphalt, only methods of cleaning need be considered. In the former class, after the surface is cleaned, dust remains which must be treated to prevent its being a nuisance. In the latter case such efficient methods of cleaning should be employed as to remove all distributable dust. The method of cleaning, therefore, depends primarily upon the kind of roadway surface. There are other factors which influence the selection of the method, such as the character and amount of traffic, the environments of the highway, and other local conditions.

Methods Applicable to Various Types of Surfaces.—Earth, gravel, and broken stone roadways are cleaned by gangs or patrolmen with push brooms or by horse-drawn or motor-driven rotary sweepers. Bituminous surfaces and good brick, bituminous and wood block pavements are cleaned of coarse dirt by gangs or patrolmen during the day and by hose flushing and squeegeeing or by rotary scrubbers or squeegees during the night. Brick, in poor condition, and stone block pavements are cleaned during the day by gangs or patrolmen and during the night with rotary brushes and hand or machine flushing methods. In all the methods the dirt is forced to the gutters and is usually removed by gangs with wagons following the machines.

Street Openings and Repairs.—In the Borough of Manhattan in New York City during 1914, the 28,000 openings made in pavements were affected by orders emanating from the Highway Bureau, the Department of Water Supply, Gas and Electricity, the Bureau of Sewers, and the Public Service Commission. The wretched conditions of the streets in many municipalities on account of street openings and the inefficient repair thereof may be materially improved by centralization of control.

Efficiency in this important branch of street maintenance would be promoted by, first, entrusting the Bureau of Highways with the granting of all permits for street openings; second, giving it charge of assessments covering the cost of repairs; and, third, giving it control of the refilling of trenches and the reconstruction of foundations and surfaces.

PLAN COMMISSION LEGISLATION

IT has seemed advisable to attempt a survey of existing legislation under which plan commissions are authorized, in response to inquiries from many sources, official and otherwise, interested in presenting the subject to the legislatures of the next year for action. The analysis may also be used as a supplement to Dr. Whitten's admirable treatment of "The Constitution and Powers of a City Planning Authority" which appeared in THE CITY PLAN for June.

The following legislative acts and ordinances have been considered, which, with very few exceptions, most of them being city ordinances, embrace the entire body of legislation on the subject in the United States :

Connecticut: Special Acts of 1907, No. 61; New Haven, Special Act of 1913, amending Charter; Bridgeport, Resolve adopted August 18, 1913. Michigan: Detroit, Ordinance passed 1909. Illinois: Chicago, Ordinance 1909. Wisconsin: Acts of 1909, Chapter 162. Maryland: Acts of 1910, Chapter 144. Missouri: St. Louis, Ordinance approved March 27, 1911. Pennsylvania: Acts of 1911, No. 345; Acts of 1913, No. 406. New York: Acts of 1913, Chapter 699. New Jersey: Acts of 1913, Chapter 72; Acts of 1913, Chapter 170; Acts of 1915, Chapter 188. Massachusetts: Acts of 1913, Chapter 494; Acts of 1914, Chapter 283. Rhode Island: Providence, Ordinances, Chapter 599; Approved 1914. Ohio: Acts of 1915; Cleveland, Ordinance No. 32476; Approved 1914; Amended 1915. California: Acts of 1915, Chapter 428. Nebraska: Acts of 1915.

ORGANIZATION

Appointment of Commission either by the mayor, or city council, or by the mayor with the consent of the council, is universal except in Massachusetts towns where it is elected. *Compensation* is given to the commissioners in no jurisdiction, except that in New York it is optional with the city legislative authority.

The *composition* of the commission, which varies greatly in number but is often five, seven or nine, is either entirely of citizens or in part citizens and in part city officials. Under the Ohio act the commission of seven consists of the mayor, service director, the president of the park board and four citizens. Under the California act the commission of seven consists of the city attorney, city engineer, one member of the city's legislative body and four citizens, and the mayor or other executive head of the city is an ex-officio member of the commission without right of vote except in case of tie. The Cleveland commission of thirteen is made up of seven city officials and six citizens, and the St. Louis commission of fifteen is made up of six officials and nine citizens. Neb-

raska, Pennsylvania, New York and cities of the first and second class in New Jersey, have commissions composed entirely of citizens.

The *term* of service is only one year in New Jersey second class cities, and in Pennsylvania second class cities the life of the commission ends with the mayor who appoints it, but under all other legislation the term varies from three to nine years and with but two exceptions, namely, Cleveland, where the term of all commissioners is four years and in Wisconsin where the term is three years, the commission is made continuous and changes in personnel are avoided by varying the terms of its first members and by selecting thereafter only one member each year.

FUNCTIONS

1. To prepare a plan.

This function is phrased most briefly in the Nebraska act, which provides that "said commission shall acquire or prepare a city plan." It is elaborated in detail in the St. Louis ordinance which itemizes the following among others as parts of such plan:

Improvement of the river front.

Extension of streets and the supervision of the opening of subdivisions.

A system of widening and opening various through streets so as to make the city more cohesive and less disjointed.

A playground, park and boulevard system.

Location of public buildings.

The Cleveland ordinance provides that "the commission shall after thorough investigation prepare and submit to the council and board of control comprehensive plans for the future physical development and improvement of the city, based primarily upon public utility, convenience and beauty, physical needs and possibilities and the social welfare and physical well-being of the people."

The Ohio act gives authority to the commission to include in their plan the land *outside the municipality* "which in the opinion of the commission bears relation to the planning of the municipality." The California, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin acts have somewhat the same provision. In Pennsylvania the "land outside the municipality" is defined as including the territory three miles beyond the city limits; in Wisconsin the territory one and one-half miles beyond the city limits.

2. To make studies. To study the physical needs, resources and possibilities is an almost universal provision, though phrased in almost as many ways as there are legislative acts.

3. To make reports and recommendations, to the proper municipal

official on either the general subject of the city's development, or on subjects named in the ordinance or act. It is frequently provided that special matters may be from time to time referred to the plan commission for report and recommendation.

4. To serve as an art commission.

Under the Detroit ordinance, the Cleveland ordinance, the Ohio act, and under the two New Jersey acts applying to first class cities and to cities of the third and fourth class, boroughs, towns and incorporated villages.

POWER TO CONTROL DEVELOPMENT

No such power is given in Massachusetts or Maryland legislation, in the St. Louis ordinance, in the New Jersey act for second class cities or in the Providence ordinance.

Language which permits the inference that the commission may have at least some influence over development is found in the Hartford act, which contains the provision that "all questions concerning the location of any public building, esplanade, boulevard, parkway, street, highway, square or park shall be referred to said commission by the court of common council for its consideration and report before final action is taken on such location." This language is followed with some additions in the New Haven act and much the same provision is found in the Wisconsin act. Somewhat the same idea is contained in the California act which provides that officials shall give notice to the plan commission of the pendency of proceedings which have reference to questions of physical development. Pennsylvania second class legislation goes a step further in the provision that clerks of council shall furnish the plan commission with a copy of all ordinances and bills relating to the development and improvement of the city.

A very definite power is given to the plan commission:

1. As an art commission under the acts of Ohio, the act of New Jersey affecting third class cities, the ordinance of Cleveland and of Detroit.

2. As a board of survey or platting commission under the Ohio act, the Pennsylvania acts and the Cleveland ordinance. The following is taken from the Pennsylvania legislation, and is identical for both second and third class cities:

All plans, plots, or re-plots of lands laid out in building lots, and the streets, alleys or other portions of the same intended to be dedicated to public use, or for the use of purchasers or owners of lots fronting thereon or adjacent thereto, and located within the city limits, shall be submitted to the city planning commission and approved by it before it shall be recorded, and it shall be unlawful to receive or record such plan in

any public office unless the same shall bear thereon by endorsement or otherwise the approval of the city planning commission. The disapproval of any such plan by the city planning commission shall be deemed a refusal of the proposed dedication shown thereon.

Similar language is found in the Ohio act and Cleveland ordinance.

The final step taken in legislation most recently adopted is to give the plan commission power of control over all public improvements (a) in a modified degree in the Pennsylvania legislation for third class cities.* The plan commission "shall have the power to disapprove any of the city ordinances, bills or amendments, which disapproval however must be communicated to councils in writing within ten days from the introduction of said ordinances, but such disapproval shall not operate as a veto."

(b) In a greater degree under the Ohio act as follows:

Whenever the commission shall have made a plan of the municipality, or any portion thereof, no public building, street, boulevard, parkway, park, playground, public ground, canal, river front, harbor dock, wharf, bridge, viaduct, tunnel, utility (whether publicly or privately owned) or part thereof, shall be constructed or authorized to be constructed in the municipality or said planned portion of the municipality until and unless the location thereof shall be approved by the commission, provided that in case of disapproval the commission shall communicate its reasons for disapproval to council, and the department head of the department which has control of the construction of the proposed improvement or utility; and council by a vote of not less than two-thirds of its members and such department head shall together have the power to overrule such disapproval. The narrowing, ornamentation, vacation or change in the use of streets, and other public ways, grounds, and places shall be subject to similar approval, and disapproval may be similarly overruled.

The same provision is found in New Jersey legislation for cities of the third class. The Nebraska act provides that the plan commission shall have power to carry out and maintain the plan after its adoption by the mayor and city council.

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

1. The condemnation of land.

Under the Detroit ordinance no property shall be acquired for park or boulevard purposes nor for playgrounds, nor shall any property be condemned for widening or extension of any park, boulevard or public playground unless the project has been submitted and approved by the plan commission.

2. Excess condemnation.

The Nebraska act provides that the mayor and council upon the

*This provision was not contained in the legislation passed two years earlier for second class cities in Pennsylvania.

THE CITY PLAN

recommendation of the plan commission shall have power of excess condemnation; under the Wisconsin act and under the Connecticut legislation for Hartford and New Haven, cities acting through the plan commission or otherwise have the power of excess condemnation.

3. Mandatory provisions.

The Massachusetts act of 1913 makes mandatory the appointment of plan commissions in all cities and towns over 10,000 population. The New Jersey legislation for cities of the third class contains a novel feature: if legal voters equalling 20% in number of the votes cast at the last preceding election, petition for a special election on the question as to whether the municipality shall have a plan commission, a special election shall be held at the same time as the next succeeding election of members of the General Assembly of the state of New Jersey. If a majority of the votes cast shall be in favor of the appointment of a plan commission, such commission shall be appointed within sixty days after the date of the election.

GARDEN SUBURB MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

Name of Company	Location	Date Begun	Div. Limit	Property Value	Area in A.	Fams. per A.	No. Fams.
Goodyear Heights Realty Co.	Akron, Ohio	1912	†N. P.	\$ 445,000	400	4	84
Albany Home Building Co.	Albany, N. Y.	1911	5%	177,000	6	11	43
Billerica Garden Suburb Co.	Billerica, Mass.	1914	5%	38,000	56	5	21
Boston Dwelling House Co.	Boston, Mass.	1912	†N. P.	600,000	30	13	45
Westerly Gardens	Bound Brook, N. J.	1911	†N. P.	98,500	5	10	48
Sage Foundation Homes Co.	Forest Hills, L. I., N. Y.	1911	†N. P.	500,000	200	5*	172
Framingham Associates	Framingham, Mass.	1907	†N. P.	60,000	3*	8*	51
City and Suburban Homes Co.	Homewood, N. Y.	1896	5%	1,039,300	30	8	248
Modern Homes Co.	Youngstown, Ohio	1910	5%	172,200	7	13	88
Total, 1915				\$3,130,000	737	6.5	800

Fragmentary list of operations of companies organized with limited dividend or in other ways not primarily for profit. Only estates with density of families known to be less than fifteen are included.
†N. P. — Not primarily for profit. *Approximate.

Prepared by ARTHUR C. COMEY,
Member, Mass. Homestead Commission.

THE CONFERENCE OF 1916

THE Conference of 1916 will be held in Cleveland, either in late May or early June. The choice of the city is an excellent one, for Cleveland has accomplished much in several fields of city planning which will be of great value to students of the subject, and its recently appointed plan commission, under the ordinance passed in 1914 and amended in 1915, has been given the greatest measure of control over the city's development of any such municipal agency in the United States.

Although the program of the meeting is not complete, at least four of the subjects to be discussed are pretty well decided on. *The Best Methods of Land Subdivision* which is so fundamental in city development, and which proved such a live subject at the Detroit Conference, will be taken up again, although the emphasis will be put on a different phase of the subject. It is planned now to have a symposium on *The Money Value of Intelligent Land Subdivision*, which will be contributed to by subdividers of real estate and landscape architects.

City Planning Problems in Smaller Cities as Illustrated by the City of 100,000, will be discussed for two sessions of the Conference. The distinctive features of the problem, including methods of city planning procedure in small cities will be discussed in one paper and two or three specific subjects will be chosen for technical treatment. The selection will be made from excellent suggestions which have come in as a result of a questionnaire sent to interested organizations and individuals.

The Automobile and The City Plan will be handled in two papers, one discussing the subject from the traffic side, and the other from the city planning side, showing in the latter treatment the effect on the city plan of the growing use of the automobile for pleasure and for business. Regulating the use and occupancy of land will be treated in at least two papers which may for present purposes be given the titles *Districting by Municipal Regulation* and *Districting by Private Restriction*.

In connection with both the subject of "Districting" and "The Automobile and The City Plan" the executive committee hopes to get much valuable material from newspaper discussions and local conferences held in many cities during the next three months. For this purpose it will attempt the formation of local committees and it now offers the following questions and topics to stimulate discussion :

THE AUTOMOBILE AND THE CITY PLAN

1. Providing parking space.
2. Grades as affected by the use of the automobile.

THE CITY PLAN

3. Provision of exclusive highways for automobiles.
4. The separation of fast- and slow-moving automobiles.
5. Street widths and street junctions as affected by automobiles.
6. Effect of automobiles on subdivisions.
7. Inter-city automobile thoroughfares.
8. Diffusion of city land values through increased use of automobiles.
9. Roadway design as affected by dimensions and turning radius of automobiles and particularly automobile trucks.
10. Effect of automobiles on use and design of parks.

DISTRICTING

1. Should height limits be different for different classes of buildings?
2. Should limits be higher on the waterfront or opposite parks?
3. If they should be different in different parts of the city, on what basis should they be arrived at?
4. Is it desirable to limit the area of a building as well as the height?
5. Should the area of limitation be absolute or based upon a percentage of the lot area, or a combination of the two?
6. When are rear yards desirable, and how should they be defined?
7. How should buildings be classified according to use, and just what buildings should be in each class?
8. Are we justified in leaving some parts of the town undetermined as to use, and if so, under what conditions?
9. What is the effect of railroads, rapid transit lines and street car lines, on use districting?
10. Must trolley car streets be non-residential?
11. Must all districting be done on the basis of trying to conserve and stabilize property values, at the expense of other considerations?
12. Where should districts be large and where small?
13. How long should districting regulations be enforced?
14. What should be the machinery for changing districts when it becomes imperative that they should be changed?

NOTES ON RECENT CITY PLANNING EVENTS

CANADA

Hamilton : First Town Planning Conference for Southwestern Ontario.

St. John, N. B.: Preparation of a town planning scheme for 10,000 acres. The act under which this work is done is modelled after the English Town Planning Act of 1909. Nova Scotia has a similar town planning act, which is, in the opinion of Mr. Thomas Adams, the most advanced town planning act in Canada if not in the world. Other provinces are expecting to pass such acts during the next sitting of their legislatures.

MASSACHUSETTS

The Third Annual State Conference on City Planning. Hon. James M. Curley, Mayor of Boston, said of the work of the Boston planning board that he considered the appropriation for the local planning board the best investment that the city had made in the past year.

THE CITY PLAN

City Planning Exhibition arranged by the Metropolitan Council of Fifty of Boston, attended by 60,000 people.

The organization of the Massachusetts Federation of Local Planning Boards, consisting of the members of forty-seven local planning boards and representatives of other organizations in the state, interested in municipal improvement.

NEWARK, NEW JERSEY

For \$7,500 which the plan commission spent in 1915, it had, beside its considerable routine business and minor recommendations, compiled a map of the metropolitan district, completed the draft of a comprehensive plan, made a traffic census of the city, started a yard and cultivation movement, conducted a municipal exhibit and prepared a report on land subdivision in Newark and vicinity. More evidence of a good investment of the people's money.

RECREATIONAL SURVEY FOR MADISON, WISCONSIN

This is said to be the first survey of the factors in recreation made by a commercial organization. The work was done by a committee appointed by the Madison Board of Commerce including every social and civic interest in the city. The survey is scientific in method, comprehensive in scope and distinctly practical.

A unique feature of the report is the map in Chapter I showing not only the distribution of children, but also the age periods in wards and the relation of area and general population.

BOOK REVIEW

CITY PLANNING, with special reference to the planning of streets and lots. By Charles Mulford Robinson. With 70 illustrations, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1916. 344 pp. Price, \$2.50.

The author's own breadth of view, his judgment born of long experience as a civic advisor, and his well known direct and lucid style will lead those who know him to expect in this work a genuine contribution of permanent value to the rapidly growing literature of City Planning, and the work as they will find it is calculated not to disappoint. It is happy in organization, and particularly happy in its emphasis (as upon the prevention possibilities in the planning of city extensions). It does not spare short-sighted *standardization*, hitting it vigorously and yet in a way likely to carry conviction; but it follows this destructive analysis of current street-planning by a longer carefully thought out and truly constructive account of "*functional street-planning*" (in relation to use, and local conditions, including topography), which is the most complete and sane published statement on this subject to date. The remaining important division of the work brings out well the degree to which good street-planning in realization is dependent upon intelligent legislation. In conclusion, the value is emphasized of continuity of policy, which, allowing for a certain necessary flexibility of plan, will, if the planning and the regulative legislation be sound, make for stability of values and all the benefits direct and indirect, accruing from such stability.

The appendix contains useful material including drafts of suggested Acts relating to various aspects of City Planning. Index.

JAMES STURGIS PRAY,
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“Exhibition Brilliant Success: 65,000 Attendance”—

THIS quotation is from a telegram sent by Daniel A. MacKay, Chairman of the Exhibit Committee of the Council of Fifty, of Boston, under whose auspices was held November 12-20, 1915, in the State House, a “Metropolitan City Planning Exhibition for City and Town Advance.” The most important single feature of the display was the American City Bureau’s Exhibition of American and Foreign City Planning.

Among other emphatic endorsements from Boston is a letter written by George B. Gallup, President of the Pilgrim Publicity Association, in which he says:

“According to experts with whom I have discussed the entire presentation, it was the finest exposition of city planning ever held up to the present time in this country. There is reason to believe that it has already in a very remarkable way affected the civic development of Boston. The Exhibition of the American City Bureau was an invaluable factor.”

Shall we quote you terms for bringing the Exhibition to your city, and outline a method by which the money can be raised?

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